PERCEPTIONS OF POVERTY AND THE COMMUNITY ACTION POVERTY SIMULATION EXPERIENCE

By

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ABSTRACT

Anna Grace Stout: Perceptions of Poverty and the Community Action Poverty Simulation Experience
(Under the direction of Eric Weber)

A quarter of Mississippi's population lives below the poverty line. Poverty is linked to a myriad of health conditions, psychological effects, and inaccessibility of basic resources. Often, those who have never faced the challenges of poverty hold misconceptions regarding the impacts of poverty. It is important to correct misconceptions in order to combat the problems of poverty through such means as better-informed legislation and community action plans. Poverty simulations have recently been designed to educate people about poverty and its challenges. A poverty simulation is a role-playing exercise in which participants are given props and a list of tasks to accomplish in four 15-minute periods that each represent one month. A successful poverty simulation sensitizes participants to the realities of poverty, demonstrating the impact the experience has on daily life. The McLean Institute for Public Service and Community Engagement at the University of Mississippi Oxford campus hosted the inaugural Community Action Poverty Simulation (CAPS) on October 27, 2015. This experiment examines the attitudes of people from different backgrounds, raises awareness about the challenges of poverty, and evaluates the impact of the simulation. The data show that the inaugural CAPS at the University of Mississippi in Oxford, Mississippi succeeded in raising participant awareness. This study also explains a need for a larger room, a more realistic and serious setting, a better introduction of the guidelines at the outset of the simulation, and a need to recruit from further audiences for future CAPS.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The idea of the American Dream has encouraged the idealistic view that through hard work, a person can reach prosperity no matter their starting point. In terms of social mobility in relation to the American Dream, it is important to acknowledge the deep impact of poverty in our own nation. The United States has one of the highest poverty rates among developed nations.[1] Further, poverty is prevalent in Mississippi and the health-related, social, psychological, and economic challenges our state's impoverished face are vast. An individual's perception of poverty may stem from individual experiences and is affected by factors such as age and education.[2] Those of low socioeconomic status consistently face the many hardships that come with living in poverty in a society that does not understand the conditions in which they live. Misconceptions about poverty can stem from a number of factors, including the misleading information often found in the media, and typically concern characteristics of individuals living in poverty, the attributions of poverty, and the conditions of poverty. There are a number of misconceptions that may or may not apply to individuals living in poverty (such as the idea that poor people do not work hard enough) but such statements cannot be applied to all people living in poverty. These common misconceptions are

[1] Lott, Bernice E., and Heather E. Bullock. Psychology and Economic Injustice: Personal, Professional, and Political Intersections. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association, 2007. 49. Print.
[2] Kreidl, Martin. "Perceptions of Poverty and Wealth in Western and Post-Communist Countries." Social Justice Research 13.2 (2000): 151-76. Web.

explained in Chapter 2.[3] It is important to elicit a better understanding of the poverty situation because misconceptions stemming from generalizations and assumptions are influential in our society. Without an understanding of the true impact of the poverty situation, it is not likely that efforts to correct the issues associated with poverty will be successful. In order for policy to reflect the needs of the impoverished, a greater understanding of the poverty situation is necessary.

Poverty simulations have been designed as pedagogical tools intended to educate the public and encourage community action. With props, a list of tasks for participants to accomplish, trained facilitators, and four 15-minute increments that represent one month, poverty simulations attempt to recreate the challenges that the impoverished face. In addition, a successful simulation allows participants to experience the social, psychological, and structural barriers the impoverished face and work to expel the misconceptions of poverty. Previous research shows that role-playing simulations impact on the participants' attitudes towards poverty, but "do not necessarily result in community action."[4]

It is predicted that those who participate in poverty simulations gain a greater understanding of the hardships that the impoverished face. In this study, it was expected that the CAPS would be successful in increasing awareness of the realities of poverty and demonstrate the impact of low socioeconomic status on daily life. Analysis of the success of the simulation was based on a number of factors including the participants' responses on a series of 23 Likert Scale questions and participants' responses to open-ended

[3] Ibid., 153.
[4] Pankow, Debra. The Forum for Family and Consumer Issues (FFCI). North Dakota State University, 13 Feb. 2013. Web. 23 Mar. 2015.

questions on the post simulation survey. Results show the Community Action Poverty Simulation (CAPS) at the University of Mississippi in Oxford, Mississippi to be a successful and helpful tool in raising awareness of the poverty situation.

Motivation

In addition to concern for the educational, social, and psychological impacts of poverty, my motivation stems from my experiences in the healthcare sector. As an aspiring physician, I have personally observed situations in which physicians who lack an understanding of the problems that their impoverished patients face discriminate against and limit the autonomy of their patients solely based on their economic status. In one particular case, the physician failed to offer a female patient the choice to decline to have me, a shadowing student, observe her gynecological procedure. He offered this choice to every other patient. This is unethical in that the physician did not respect the patient's autonomy or privacy. He claimed that he was not going to offer this option purely because of her insurance coverage and the amount of money she owed him. Further, I have seen a patient's economic status impact compliance. I have observed a poor mother who cannot afford to buy healthy food for her children battling childhood obesity and an elderly man who chose to leave the hospital against medical advice because of his financial difficulties. On the other hand, I have observed cases in which physicians have gone out of their way to enhance the care and lives of patients of low socioeconomic status. I have seen the difference awareness of the conditions of poverty can make in patient care. While these experiences inspired me to attempt to make a difference when it

comes to the impacts of socioeconomic status, I was unaware of how to do so until my participation in the University of Mississippi Medical Center's Community Action Poverty Simulation (CAPS) as a Bioethics Fellow.

Prior to my experience, I was unaware of the psychological, health-related, and social challenges those living in poverty face. During my first CAPS, I observed a need for a better understanding of the poverty situation that plagues our nation and our state. As a result of my transformative experience, I chose to initiate, help organize, and evaluate a poverty simulation experience at the University of Mississippi's Oxford campus. It was my goal to provide other students with the opportunity to learn more about the poverty and the associated implications. In particular, I chose to target and recruit participants whose future careers will put them in direct contact with those of low socioeconomic status. I believe that professionals' awareness of the obstacles others face has the ability to vastly improve the poverty situation. Through my participation in a poverty simulation with healthcare professionals at UMMC, I became motivated to bring the experience to a wider audience with hopes that they would learn from their experiences as I did.

I chose to evaluate the poverty simulation in order to determine what improvements can be made and whether or not those participating learn from their experience. Evaluation of the effectiveness of the simulation is important for determining the values of the CAPS and what changes should be made to allow for more successful simulations in the future. Education and awareness play a key role in correcting the misconceptions, perceptions, and their consequences.

Structure of Study

This pedagogical experiment aims to raise awareness about the challenges that the impoverished face, confirm the need for enhanced awareness, and test out and analyze a tool for achieving it. After a review of the literature, revealing the need for greater awareness and understanding of poverty, a poverty simulation with pre and post experience surveys was planned and conducted. Participants were students at the University of Mississippi in Oxford, Mississippi recruited by word of mouth, email, and posters displayed around campus. The initial online survey recorded demographic information and base-line questions about perceptions of poverty, which were analyzed using quantitative methodologies. As part of the simulation, the participants participated in a debriefing with trained facilitators to discuss their experience. At the end of this debriefing, a survey to collect information about the participants' experience was administered. The purpose of this survey was to provide a basis for comparison to assess the effectiveness of the simulation and whether or not students believe the experience was beneficial. In order to present my argument, I will first explain the conditions of poverty, then the perceptions, misconceptions, and consequences. Next, I will explain how poverty simulations are beneficial. After my explanation of the issue at hand and poverty simulations, the following chapters will explain the design implementation, research design, and the result of this study. Lastly, after my discussion and conclusion in Chapter 6, I will make recommendations for future Community Action Poverty Simulations at the University of Mississippi in Chapter 7. An annotated bibliography of the relevant literature on this topic can be found in the Appendix.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In preparation for the present study, I will present a review of the literature. The relevant factors for the experiment first concerned the conditions of poverty, perceptions, misconceptions, and consequences. The conditions of poverty are outlined in order to show the basis for the perceptions and misconceptions about poverty. Consequences of these misconceptions demonstrate the need for increased awareness of the reality of poverty. Information about poverty simulations is presented in the final section of this chapter.

Conditions of Poverty

According to the United States Census Bureau, in 2013 a total of 45.3 million Americans lived below the poverty line.[5] The poor in America are less likely to have health insurance coverage, more likely to put off necessary medical treatment, three times more likely to be victimized by crime, three times more likely to be affected by food scarcity and obesity, receive a lower quality education in public school, more likely to

[5] United States Census Bureau. Income, poverty, and health insurance coverage in the United States: 2010. http://www.census.gov/prod/2011pubs/p60-239.pdf. Published September 2011. Accessed February 2, 2015.

drop out of higher-education programs, breathe dirtier air, and sleep less.[6] While all of this is true, there are a wide-variety of perceptions of the impoverished. In recent U.S. history, poverty has been a central concern of the public, often at the center of media attention and political campaigns.[7] Recorded perceptions and political responses to the conditions of poverty that are relevant to the information presented here will focus on an era beginning in the 1960's.

In the past 55 years, the rate of poverty has been steadily increasing.[8] The U.S. Census Bureau claims that usually, after recessions like those that occurred in 1961 and 1975, poverty rates decrease, but after the 2010 recession, poverty rates continued to increase despite historical trends.[9] As a result, more people must learn to adapt and face the plethora of challenges that plague the impoverished today. Every day, the impoverished must deal with a multitude of challenges which include structural barriers, social barriers, and psychological barriers.

Even though the government does provide assistance programs to relieve the poor of such barriers, lack of time and transportation and difficulty understanding paperwork all keep some eligible people from receiving governmental benefits.[10] For example, in the United States, one-third of families eligible for food stamps do not take advantage of

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[6] Ingraham, Christopher. "Child Poverty in the U.S. Is among the Worst in the Developed World." Washington Post. The Washington Post, n.d. Web. 27 Apr. 2015. <http://www.washingtonpost.com/blogs/wonkblog/wp/2014/10/29/child-poverty-in-the-u-s-is-among-the-worst-in-the-developed-world/>.

[7] Rose, Max, and Frank R. Baumgartner. "Framing the Poor: Media Coverage and U.S. Poverty Policy, 1960-2008." Policy Studies Journal 41.1 (2013): 22-54. Business Source Complete. Web. 21 Mar. 2015. http://0-eds.a.ebscohost.com.umiss.lib.olemiss.edu/eds/detail/detail?vid=1&sid=c31debdf-8f34-41b2-81f5-4e71c414038f%40sessionmgr4005&hid=4203&bdata=JkF1dGhUeXBlPWlwLHVybCx1aWQmc2l0ZT1lZHMtbGl2ZSZzY29wZT1zaXRl#db=bth&AN=85675101

[8] Ibid

[9] United States Census Bureau (2015) 1.

[10] Lott and Bullock. (2007) 51.

them, which can be explained by the lack of support for other barriers that they face.[11] Among such obstacles are: time, lack of transportation, lack of child care, difficulty understanding paperwork processes, unemployment, isolation, and lack of support. It is important to acknowledge that structural barriers are considered to be any obstacles that impede the ability to improve one's life or financial situation. The combined effects of such technical barriers impede self-sufficiency[12] and autonomy.

According to David Buchanan, technical/structural barriers directly reduce the autonomy of the poor. In this, it is important to consider that Buchanan references Immanuel Kant's definition of autonomy, "the capacity of a person to critically reflect upon and then attempt to accept or change one's desires, values, and ideals."[13] In applying this definition, poverty clearly limits autonomy. No matter an individual's desire to accomplish goals or better themselves, the situation in which they must live often impedes any attempts to accomplish goals. Under conditions of poverty, it is increasingly difficult to fulfill the desire to work or attend school.

Further, it is harder for the impoverished to perform well in school and to continue their education beyond high school. According to *Psychology and Economic Injustice*, "the U.S. Department of Education found that the 'drop-out rate for the poorest 20 percent of students was six times that of the wealthiest 20 percent.'"[14] Further, when it comes to attending college, the wealthy know how to work the system and can afford to provide their children with the necessary resources, such as SAT prep courses, and once

[11] Ibid
[12] Pankow, Debra. The Forum for Family and Consumer Issues (FFCI). North Dakota State University, 13 Feb. 2013. Web. 23 Mar. 2015.
[13] Buchanan, David R. "Autonomy, Paternalism, and Justice: Ethical Priorities in Public Health." *American Journal of Public Health* 98.1 (2008): 15–21. PMC. Web. 13 Feb. 2015. 16.
[14] Lott and Bullock. (2007) 57.

in college, the wealthy stress less about financials.[15] In addition to these structural barriers, there are social barriers to education that discourage the impoverished from continuing their education. Often, teachers even have different expectations of poor students.[16] As a result, teacher's expectations can become 'self-fulfilling prophecies' which reduce the student's ability to be academically successful.[17] In *Psychology and Economic Injustice*, authors Bernice Lott and Heather Bullock recall the embarrassment they felt at school solely because of their financial situations at home.[18] These social and psychological barriers typically are the result of the public's negative perception of the poor.

Another common limitation and barrier to autonomy for the impoverished is the lack of transportation. If access to transportation was not an issue, the poor would have access to different sources of food, to more opportunities, and would be able to take better advantage of the resources adapted specifically for them. As previously explained, the poor often do not receive the benefits the government offers because of lack of time, transportation, and a general understanding of the paperwork. In addition, lack of transportation is a key characteristic of "food deserts," which are areas where traditionally poor populations tend to be bound to their situation as a result of the transportation and financial issues they face.[19] Typically, populations within food desserts are static—there is limited flow of new people in and out of the areas.[20] Food deserts may

[15] Ibid
[16] Lott and Bullock (2007). 56.
[17] Ibid
[18] Ibid
[19] Dutko, Paula. "Food Deserts Suffer Persistent Socioeconomic Disadvantage." *Choices Magazine*. 2012: 1-4. Web. 22 Feb. 2015.
[20] Ibid.

also be considered a structural barrier because they are areas where there is little access to affordable and healthy food.

Limited access to good, healthy food has negative implications on health. For those that live in food desserts, the available food is often affordable but unhealthy, leading to poor health. From a public health standpoint, limited autonomy and resources impede the journey to achieving and ensuring justice. *A Poverty Simulation to Inform Public Health Practice* claims that "a core principle of public health is social justice, in which 'all people' are entitled equally to key ends such as health protection or minimum standards of income."[21] Considering this idea of social justice, the technical barriers of poverty impede the ability to ensure public health as well as reduce the autonomy of the impoverished. Buchanan argues that "people with the least amount of autonomy—the least amount of control over their work conditions or other major life circumstances—have the poorest health."[22] Further, Buchanan considers the social determinants of health and argues that society as a whole is responsible for the distributional pattern seen with unhealthy behaviors and emphasizes the strong correlation between poverty and poor health.[23]

In addition, people of low socioeconomic status (SES) have an increased risk of developing poor health conditions later in life.[24] Conditions worsened by long-term exposure to the conditions of poverty include hypertension, cardiovascular disease,

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[21] Strasser, Sheryl, Megan O. Smith, Danielle Pendrick Denney, Matt C. Jackson, and Pam Buckmaster. "A Poverty Simulation to Inform Public Health Practice." American Journal of Health Education 44.5 (2013): 259-64. Web. 1.
[22] Buchanan. (2008) 17.
[23] Ibid.
[24] Barnes, L. L., R. S. Wilson, L. E. Hebert, P. A. Scherr, D. A. Evans, and C. F. Mendes De Leon. "Racial Differences in the Association of Education with Physical and Cognitive Function in Older Blacks and whites." The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences 66B.3 (2011): 354-63. 14 Mar. 2011. Web. 1 Mar. 2015.

obesity, sleep loss, and poor mental health.[25] According to Christopher Ingram, the poor are more likely to put off or skip necessary medical treatment and, as a result, often end up developing worse health problems with more costly treatments.[26] When it comes to healthcare, the poor face over-crowded clinics with long wait times and in non-emergency situations, physicians may turn them away.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, I have personally experienced cases where a patient's economic status has impacted the care they receive. Stories such as this are not uncommon[27] and this example provides support for Buchanan's argument that the poor have a limited autonomy. In addition, low SES results in delayed care (longer wait times), inefficient care (inability to afford prescription medication), and lack of care (not seeking treatment).[28] According to Lott and Bullock, "the resource to which low-income people in this country have the least access is health care."[29]

There are strong correlations between low SES and compromised metabolic function, physical health disorders, hypertension, and elevated autonomic and cortisol responses to stress.[30] In addition to such barriers, the impoverished must deal with the loss of cognitive thinking skills brought on by stress that results in a greater inability to focus attention on fulfilling other duties. Experiments at Princeton, Harvard, and the University of Warwick have shown that poverty results in the equivalent loss of 13 IQ points.[31] The poor are so affected by their situation that they are unable to focus their

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[25] Strasser, et al. (2013). 1.
[26] Ingraham, 1.
[27] Lott and Bullock. (2007) 69.
[28] Ibid.
[29] Ibid.
[30] Lehman Lehman BJ, Taylor SE, Kiefe CI, et al. Relationship of early life 425 stress and psychological functioning to blood pressure in the CARDIA study. Health Psychol. 2009;28:338-346.
[31] Badger, Emily. "How Poverty Taxes the Brain." The Atlantic City Lab. *The Atlantic Monthly Group*, 29 Aug. 2013. Web. 15 Feb. 2015. http://www.citylab.com/work/2013/08/how-poverty-taxes-brain/6716/.

attention on actions that may allow them to overcome their situation.[32] For example, decreased IQ and increased stress levels impede one's ability to better educate themselves and even to perform well at work.

When it comes to wages and benefits, many poor people work for low wages and have little or no benefits, both of which cause hardships. Another issue is unemployment. To combat these issues, legislators have continued to reauthorize programs such as the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) which degrade the poor.[33] TANF has produced "no significant shift in the numbers of families living below the poverty line. Access to affordable housing has gotten worse, and emergency food needs have sharply increased."[34] Along with this policy issue is the fact that political response to such inequalities has become less and less over time.[35] While it may be true that our politicians "may not see inequality as a high-priority problem," it should be acknowledged that "we have the greatest level of inequality among Western countries."[36]

When examining these inequalities, it is important to also focus attention on the social and psychological effects of living in poverty. Exclusion, discrimination, and manipulation plague the impoverished. According to Tischauser, survival in the conditions of poverty "requires a toughness of spirit and a distrust of others."[37] A common idea of poverty is the concept of the "culture of poverty." According to Leslie V. Tischauser, "the term 'culture of poverty' has been used to describe the values, principles, and lifestyles associated with people living at the lowest economic levels of

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[32] Ibid.
[33] Lott and Bullock. (2007) 65.
[34] Ibid.
[35] Lott and Bullock. (2007) 49.
[36] Ibid.
[37] Tischauser, Leslie V. "Culture Of Poverty." Salem Press Encyclopedia (2014): Research Starters. Web. 4 May 2015.

society."[38] Anthropologist, Oscar Lewis, "believed that the values children learn from their parents about how to survive in such desperate circumstances make them less able to move out of poverty."[39] Also, he claimed that "the culture learned by the poor works against their ever getting out of poverty" and that "for things to change… the environmental conditions need to change."[40] Not only does this culture encourage the negative actions, but the very concept of a culture of poverty reinforces negative attitudes towards the poor. "These attitudes must be faced and absorbed into a poor person's consciousness every day, and they only increase a sense of frustration and hopelessness… this attitude represents one of the most devastating nonmaterial effects of being poor."[41]

Social barriers have a significant impact in that they perpetuate poor health conditions, reduce cognitive ability, and decrease opportunities as a result of the public perception of the poor, just as health and physical barriers do.[42] For example, if a person faces discrimination solely because of another individual's perception of the poor person's situation, they could be discouraged from continuing to work towards any specific goal. This can be seen in the education system, where teachers often have different expectations for poor students.[43] When it comes to combating the multitude of barriers the impoverished must face, public perception plays a major role in policy formation. In order to develop more effective policies, it is important that the barriers the impoverished face are well understood by the public, the media, and politicians.

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[38] Ibid.
[39] Ibid.
[40] Ibid.
[41] Ibid.
[42] Badger, Emily. (2013).
[43] Lott (2007). 56.

Perceptions of Poverty

Beginning in the early 1960's, the impoverished were seen as victims of their situation and governmental assistance programs offered more help to more people as a result of how the impoverished were viewed.[44] In this time period, poverty was considered to be a potential harm to society that needed to be addressed before the situation worsens.[45] This was the era known as The War on Poverty.

Eventually, the optimistic attitude prevalent in the 1960s gave way to pessimism as stories of the poor taking advantage of government assistance programs began to circulate.[46] President Ronald Reagan was at the forefront of the gradually changing attitudes towards poverty. During his 1976 campaign, he "spoke at every stop about Linda Harris, a 47-year-old Chicago woman who he said had 80 names, 30 addresses, 12 social security cards, and is collecting veteran's benefits on four non-existing deceased husbands."[47] In addition, President Reagan spoke about young people using welfare checks to purchase steak dinners.[48] While these examples may be true representations of some of the people who received governmental assistance during the time, they could also have been maliciously fabricated accounts. With the shift in focus from a generally optimistic attitude that focused on the threat poverty poses to society and encouraged governmental assistance for the poor, to a pessimistic attitude encouraged by political leaders such as Ronald Reagan, the result was decreased governmental assistance.

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[44] Rose, et al. (2013).
[45] Ibid.
[46] Ibid.
[47] Rose and Baumgartner. (2013).
[48] Ibid.

With this change came increasing numbers of impoverished.[49] "Accelerating in the 1970s, public discussion of the poor began to focus on the poor as cheaters, lazy or unwilling to work, and on the dysfunctions of government efforts to help them."[50] This pessimistic attitude has steadily continued to accumulate more and more among the general population. Today it is the most prevalent attitude towards the poor in the United States.[51] The media have provided tangible representations of the public's perception of the poor. Generally, there have been five frames found in the media that are used to group the impoverished. They are: misery and neglect, which frames the poor as those living in a separate society; social disorder, which focuses on them as a threat to society; economic and physical barriers, which illustrates the poor as victims of their situation; laziness and dysfunction, which argues that they avoid work and procreate; and cheating, which claims they take advantage of programs in place to help them overcome their situation.[52]

In the 1960s the number of Americans earning an income below the poverty line was 22 percent.[53] During the time, media headlines portrayed a general attitude of support for the impoverished. The supportive attitude was mirrored in the political and social movement deemed The War on Poverty and poverty was framed as social disorder. Rose and Baumgartner in the *Policy Studies Journal* examined media from the era and "examined the measure of the relative generosity of U.S. government policy toward the poor and show that it is highly related to the content of newspaper stories."[54] Post-analysis and grouping of the newspaper stories they examined, they found that the

[49] Ibid., 23.
[50] Ibid.
[51] Ibid.
[52] Rose and Baumgartner. 28.
[53] Rose and Baumgartner. 22.
[54] Ibid.

policies implemented during this time were representative of an optimistic approach to eliminating poverty in our nation.[55] At the height of The War on Poverty, media headlines portrayed a general attitude that the impoverished are victims of their situation and as a result, spending on poverty assistance programs increased. This general attitude falls under the economic and physical barriers frame. Within fifteen years, the poverty rate was reduced to 12 percent as spending on poverty assistance programs increased from 3 percent to 8 percent of United States government spending.[56] An inverse relationship between number of people living in poverty and increased spending in poverty assistance programs was observed. In the Kennedy and Johnson eras, there was a surge in positive attitudes as a result of "extraordinary social discussions" about the need to do something.[57] Despite the low poverty levels during that time, the initial optimism found in the beginning of The War on Poverty gave way to pessimism in the 1970's. The same pessimistic attitude prevails today; in modern times, the impoverished are framed with the "laziness and dysfunction" frame.[58]

A recent poll reported by *The New York Times* reveals that attitudes towards poverty in the 1964 and 1984 were remarkably similar to the response received in the more recent survey.[59] "Fifty-six percent of adults said most poor people would prefer to earn their own living rather than stay on welfare. But 64 percent said 'welfare benefits make poor people dependent' and encourage them to stay poor."[60] Overall, 38 percent

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[55] Ibid., 24.
[56] Ibid.
[57] Rose and Baumgartner (2013) 25.
[58] Ibid., 29
[59] "Poverty Is Perceived as Increasing and State of the Poor Unimproved." The New York Times 23 Aug. 1989: n. pag. Web. http://www.nytimes.com/1989/08/23/us/poverty-is-perceived-as-increasing-and-state-of-the-poor-unimproved.html
[60] Ibid.

claimed that 'lack of effort' was the cause of poverty and 42 percent said it was the result of an individual's situation.[61] Americans seem to believe that the impoverished work, but can't earn enough money, receive poor healthcare, have similar or lower moral values as other Americans, jobs are available for anyone willing to work, and that it is hard to get out of poverty.[62] There is public frustration with poverty, with solving the problem of poverty, and an overwhelming doubt that this country will ever be able to eliminate poverty.[63]

Overall, the perceptions of poverty can be grouped into merited, unmerited, and fatalistic forms of poverty.[64] Merited poverty is "poverty brought about by the individual's own doing (or not doing)," unmerited poverty is due to forces external to the individual, and fatalistic explanations attribute poverty to ascribed properties of the individual.[65] Overall, other people either believe that the impoverished are to blame for their living situation or society is to blame.[66] In addition to merited, unmerited, and fatalistic types of poverty, the American dominant stratification ideology is introduced as a fundamental "belief in the responsibility of a person for his or her social fate."[67] This theory is thought to legitimize inequalities and the idea that "wealth is perceived as a product of one's exceptional effort and talents, whereas poverty is caused by the lack of these attributes."[68] In this ideology, the stratification system is even seen as legitimate by

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[61] Ibid.
[62] "Poverty in America." NPR Online. NPR/Kaiser/Kennedy School Poll, 2001. Web. 30 Mar. 2015.
[63] "Poverty Is Perceived as Increasing and State of the Poor Unimproved." (1989) 2.
[64] Kreidl, Martin. "Perceptions of Poverty and Wealth in Western and Post-Communist Countries." Social Justice Research 13.2 (2000): 151-76. Web.
[65] Kreidl, Martin. (2000). 151.
[66] Ibid.
[67] Ibid.
[68] Ibid., 153.

the disadvantaged—this is often referred to by Marxist tradition scholars as the "false consciousness."[69]

Another ideology takes on egalitarian characteristics, is often referred to as the individual social experience, and states that unemployment and low wages increase "class consciousness" and allows the explanation that personal experiences results in either structural or individual explanations of the poverty situation.[70] A third ideology is based on the social atmosphere. This opposes the dominant ideology and claims that the individual is not to blame, but society is to blame for inequalities. While some individual beliefs may align with these ideologies, some beliefs may be inconsistent and result in what is explained by the "split-consciousness theory," which "explains this possible inconsistency by different attitudes coexisting on different levels in the individual."[71] All in all, it seems that in western regions, an individual's social position determines which ideology they cling to. For example, if a person is able to work to pull themselves out of poverty, they often attribute success to their own efforts and would most likely support an individualistic explanation of poverty.[72] Further, it was concluded that left-leaning individuals believed in structural explanations, "individual explanations decrease with rising education in The Netherlands and United States" and "education effects manifest a skeptical attitude towards individualism rather than the rising awareness of structural causes of poverty."[73]

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[69] Ibid.
[70] Kreidl, Martin (2000) 153.
[71] Kreidl, Martin (2000) 154.
[72] Ibid.
[73] Ibid., 169.

While Kreidl attributes negative perceptions of the impoverished to an individual's experiences, David Buchanan attributes the negative attitudes about the impoverished to the "Band-Aid approaches" which refers to policies that have failed and resulted in "widespread stereotyping and the formation of a blame-the-victim mentality" that allows those unaffected to "claim powerlessness in the situation."[74] In terms of social justice, Buchanan argues that all of society is responsible for the distributional patterns observed within social classes—including the distributional pattern seen with unhealthy behaviors.[75] He concludes this because he believes that the arguments in support of the social determinants of health imply an inevitable compulsion to follow the unhealthy trends that plague the impoverished.[76] All in all, public perception of such issues has a significant impact on the manner in which the media frames the poor and thus the social policies that are implemented.

Misconceptions of Poverty

Within the variety of perceptions of poverty described above, there are a multitude of misconceptions about the impoverished. These misconceptions stem from personal experiences, societal influences, and the media's portrayal of the impoverished. According to Bernice Lott and Heather Bullock, "dealing structurally with inequities continues to be hampered by myths."[77] One of the most common misconceptions about

[74] Buchannan (2008) 18.
[75] Ibid.
[76] Ibid.
[77] Lott and Bullok (2007). 49.

the impoverished is that all who are poor are "lazy, cheating, and unwilling to work."[78] Another is the misconception that if an impoverished person is willing to work hard enough, they have the ability to overcome their situation.[79] Such an ideal can stem from the concept of the American Dream.[80] This can be explained by the mainly Democratic rhetoric of "meritocracy, or the belief that socioeconomic status is determined primarily by individual talent and ability and not by unearned advantage, discriminatory practices, and group membership."[81] While these descriptions may be applicable to a number of people within the population, they cannot be applied to the impoverished population as a whole. Poverty is the result of many factors and each individual affected by poverty has had unique life-experiences that directly affect the lifestyle they live. Despite the fact that an overarching description of people living in poverty cannot be applied to everyone, similar generalizations and assumptions concerning groups of people are common and influential in our society.

Misconceptions of the impoverished can be associated with different groups of people, one of the most common being those of the conservatives and liberals. For example, according to Christopher Ingraham, the conservatives claim that "poor people have it easy because they can get government benefits without doing anything."[82] Further, he claims that some conservatives believe government assistant programs either "provide a leg up or simply perpetuate poverty."[83] In order to prove these misconceptions are incorrect, Ingraham provides data such as the reduced opportunities for the poor, and

[78] Tischauser, Leslie V. "Culture of Poverty." Salem Press Encyclopedia (2014): Research Starters. Web. 4 May 2015.
[79] Ingraham, Christopher (2015).
[80] Lott and Bullock. (2007) 86.
[81] Ibid.
[82] Ingraham, Christopher. (2014). 1.
[83] Ibid.

shows exactly why the poor do not lead easy lives. In conjunction with these misconceptions comes the idea of the "culture of poverty," defined previously, where people believe it is considered optimal to be unemployed and receive governmental assistance.[84] This so-called culture of poverty is important in that it perpetuates the circumstances of poverty—the impoverished respond to the manner in which society treats them. If people perceive the impoverished as wicked and corrupt, they tend to treat the impoverished poorly, which only discourages any advances towards self-betterment.[85] Generally, those who support these misconceptions lack a full understanding of the conditions of poverty. Despite the lack of understanding behind these misconceptions, these generalizations and assumptions directly impact the manner in which society deals with the poverty situation.

Further, media places a role in shaping public perception and perpetuating the misconceptions of poverty. Particularly, bias in the media perpetuates misconceptions and can divided into three categories: distortion bias, content bias, and decision-making bias.[86] Framing in the media "introduces or raises the salience or apparent importance of certain ideas, activating schemas that encourage target audiences to think, feel, and decide in a particular way."[87] In addition to framing, media's use of agenda setting allows them to call attention to the issues they deem worthy as important.[88] Overall, Robert Entman claims that the media tells people what to consider as they come to conclusions

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[84] Rose and Baumgartner. (2013). 24.
[85] Tischauser, Leslie V. (2015).
[86] Entman, Robert M. "Framing Bias: Media in the Distribution of Power." "*Journal of Communication* 57.1 (2007): 163-73. Communication & Mass Media Complete. Web. 23 Mar. 2015. <http://0-eds.a.ebscohost.com.umiss.lib.olemiss.edu/eds/detail/detail?vid=1&sid=2c2340bd-7dc5-4493-9589-c3daf75453bb%40sessionmgr4002&hid=4203&bdata=JkF1dGhUeXBlPWlwLHVybCx1aWQmc2l0ZT1lZHMtbGl2ZSZzY29wZT1zaXRl#db=ufh&AN=24074968>.
[87] Ibid., 2.
[88] Ibid.

via bias, framing, agenda setting, and priming.[89] The implications of the media's action has significant consequences in the political realm.

Consequences

Robert Entman argues that the media influences the distribution of political power.[90] In addition, public perception of the impoverished carries immense weight in policy formation. "The way in which the American public sees and talks about any population affects policy directed toward the group in question."[91] In turn, policies result from the general public's perception and the media's framing. According to the Policy Studies Journal (PSJ), despite the ever increasing rates of poverty, there is little chance policy makers will address poverty in the next decade because the size of the deficit, the manner in which the impoverished have been framed, and fiscal responsibility concerns.[92] Considering these factors, the consequences of media's framing and the public's misconceptions of the impoverished have great implications for future policies dealing with poverty.

From an initial optimistic focus observed in the media with efforts to alleviate poverty, the public has given up over time and become discouraged. [93] Historically, as governmental assistance decreases, poverty rates in the United States increase.[94] The PSJ argues that "collectively, attention now focuses on what we have called the 'stingy' frames: The poor are individually responsible for their problems, and government's

[89] Ibid.
[90] Ibid.
[91] Rose and Baumgartner. (2013). 24
[92] Rose and Baumgartner. (2013). 42
[93] Ibid., 23
[94] Ibid.

efforts to help them may do more harm than good… and policy has followed the framing."[95] The consequences of the misconceptions of poverty are observable in the data presented by the United States Census Bureau, "the number of people in poverty in 2010 (46.2 million) is the largest number in the 52 years for which poverty estimates have been published."[96] In addition, the United States has one of the highest childhood poverty rates among wealthy nations.[97] The U.S. ranks 36th out of the 41 wealthy countries included in a report published by UNICEF.[98] More close examination revealed that "poverty rates are generally higher in southern states" and in 2014, Mississippi had a childhood poverty rate of 39.1%.[99] However, it is important to note that 6 of the top 10 states with the highest childhood poverty rate are not in the south and that these 10 states alone account for almost 60% of the number of children in poverty in the United States. According to Christopher Ingraham, the high poverty rates reflect the failure of policy makers to deal with the issues that face the most vulnerable populations within the United States.[100]

Poverty Simulations

Poverty simulations serve as a pedagogical tool to overcome these misconceptions and inform participants in a manner that allows them to create their own personal experience that resembles the hardships of poverty. This is important because "the way in

[95] Ibid., 43
[96] United States Census Bureau. Income, poverty, and helath insurance coverage in the United States: 2010. http://www.census.gov/prod/2011pubs/p60-239.pdf. Published September 2011. Accessed July 2, 2012. 14
[97] Ingraham, Christopher. "Child Poverty in the U.S. Is among the Worst in the Developed World." Washington Post. The Washington Post, n.d. Web. 27 Apr. 2015. <http://www.washingtonpost.com/blogs/wonkblog/wp/2014/10/29/child-poverty-in-the-u-s-is-among-the-worst-in-the-developed-world/>.
[98] Ibid.
[99] Ibid.
[100] Ibid.

which the public views a public issue determines the possible solutions."[101] In dealing with these misconceptions of poverty, an informed public has the ability to drive public policy. In order for poverty simulations to be deemed effective, a number of variables should be considered. In general, the predicted outcome of poverty simulations is that participants will have a better understanding of the poor[102] and a greater awareness of the situations the impoverished face.[103]

The Missouri Association for Community Action developed the Community Action Poverty Simulation (CAPS), which can be purchased by community leaders and institutions.[104] "The Community Action Poverty Simulation (CAPS) is a unique tool that community action agencies are able to use to educate everyone, from policy makers to local community leaders, about the day to day realities of life with a shortage of money and an abundance of stress."[105] The simulation kit includes all necessary resources and props for conducting poverty simulations. The simulation requires 3 hours of time, roughly 15-20 volunteers, a large room, and at least 40 participants (maximum number of participants is 88).[106] The CAPS requires participants to role-play the lives of low-income families and accomplish specific tasks in one hour divided into 15 minutes that represent one week of each month. This tool is copyrighted, may be purchased and is capable of reuse by the institution that purchased it.[107] Of the 3 hour time period, the actual

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[101] Kingdon, John W. 1984. *Agendas, alternatives, and Public Policies*. New York: HarperCollins.
[102] Row, K. Could you survive? One month in the state of poverty. http://www.uwex.edu/ces/wnep/files/povsim.pdf. Published July 2002. Accessed June 23, 2012. 450.
[103] Vandsburger E, Duncan-Daston R, Akerson E, et al. The effects of poverty simulation, an experiential learning modality, on students' understanding of life in poverty. J Teach Soc Work. 2010;30:300-316.
[104] MACA - Missouri Association for Community Action - Poverty Simulation."Community Action Poverty Simulation. MACA - Missouri Association for Community Action -, n.d. Web. 04 May 2015. <http://www.communityaction.org/Poverty%20Simulation.aspx>.
[105] Ibid.
[106] Ibid.
[107] Ibid.

simulation takes up roughly an hour, leaving 2 remaining hours. In this time, a debriefing post-simulation is pertinent in order for participants to have a more complete understanding of the experience.

There are several accounts of poverty simulations and the effects they have had on participants. Deborah Pankow supports the importance of debriefing and well-trained facilitators by claiming that that simulations "can be counterproductive if learners do not have an opportunity to discuss and 'process' the experience following the simulation."[108] Facilitators should guide discussion, guide learning, and challenge assumptions post-simulation all while remaining unbiased.[109]

In the simulation performed by Row, et al., participant's understanding of the problems were not improved (though the problems were realized), participants offered a multitude of ideas for addressing poverty, a desire to improve the situation was present, and overall, the goal of the poverty simulation was achieved.[110] According to the article, "the poverty simulation increased participants' awareness and understanding of the situation of individuals in poverty,"[111] "the poverty simulation changed the way individuals related to low income families,"[112] "the experience did not usually lead to organizations making any changes to programs or policies to better meet the needs of clients/families" but did reinforce worker's ideas of the problems of poverty.[113] Row

[108] Pankow. (2013). 2.
[109] Gurin, Patricia, Biren (Ratnesh) A. Nagda, and Nicholas Sorensen. "Intergroup Dialogue: Education for a Broad Conception of Civic Engagement." Liberal Education (2011): 46-52. JSTOR. Web. 25 Feb. 2015.
[110] Ibid., 3.
[111] Ibid.
[112] Row, K. (2012). 4.
[113] Ibid., 5.

proposes that follow-up skills training be offered to participants in order to encourage community action.[114]

The poverty simulation study completed by Strasser, et al., focused on public health professionals and the research shows that poverty simulations facilitate 3 key objectives in education. They are: "(1) the transfer of knowledge (2) skill development and (3) the application of both knowledge and skills."[115] Further, this study revealed that "creating a deeper level of understanding and awareness among this group is important for better informing public policies and practices that affect underserved populations."[116] In another poverty simulation performed by Vandsburger, et al., student perceptions did change.[117] The article states that "this tool was used to teach the students about diversity and was found to be effective in changing or offering them different perspectives."[118] Specifically, the program offered opportunities that would allow students to consider the moral dilemmas community leaders face.[119]

All in all, critical thinking about poverty and understanding of poverty were not changed, but students were better able to relate to the poor.[120] This could have been due to sample bias—participants in this study could have been those who are interested in learning about poverty or those who have worked with the impoverished. According to Gurin, et al., who facilitated a dialogue course involving multiple universities and

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[114] Ibid.
[115] Ibid., 6.
[116] Strasser, Sheryl, Megan O. Smith, Danielle Pendrick Denney, Matt C. Jackson, and Pam Buckmaster. "A Poverty Simulation to Inform Public Health Practice." American Journal of Health Education 44.5 (2013): 259-64. Web. 1
[117] Vandsburger E, Duncan-Daston R, Akerson E, et al. "The effects of poverty simulation, an experiential learning modality, on students' understanding of life in poverty." *J Teach Soc Work*. 2010;30:300-316.
[118] Ibid.
[119] Ibid.
[120] Ibid.

discussions of social differences, the facilitator's job is important in poverty simulations because they should respond to, observe, and encourage the students.[121] Debra Pankow recognizes poverty simulations as tools that make an impact on the participants' attitudes towards poverty, but not necessarily their behaviors.[122] Overall, Pankow's simulation was a positive learning experience and participants claimed to have participated in other poverty-centered programs or organizing other simulations.[123] This is the desired outcome of the poverty simulation. A successful simulation will dissolve misconceptions, educate participants, and encourage community action and a desire to learn more about the poverty situation.

[121] Gurin, et al., (2011).
[122] Pankow, Debra. (2013). 1.
[123] Ibid., 2.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

Rationale

A survey methodology was utilized in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the Community Action Poverty Simulation (CAPS) developed by the Missouri Association for Community Action as a pedagogical tool at the University of Mississippi. A mixed methods survey methodology was implemented because of the ease at which information can be obtained from participants. The mixed methods approach was chosen in order to first, gain insight into the participants' qualities and perceptions, and second, to allow them to freely voice their thoughts on their experience. The overall aim of this project was to gain insight into the effectiveness of the Poverty Simulation, which was hosted by the University of Mississippi's McLean Institute for Public Service and Community Engagement.[124] Sponsors of the CAPS include "the African-American Studies Program, Department of Social Work, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Division of Student Affairs, Division of Outreach and Continuing Education, Ole Miss Athletics, Sally McDonnell Barksdale Honors College, Sarah Isom Center for Women and Gender Studies, School of Applied Sciences, School of Education, and Student Disability Services."[125] This study was able to evaluate the effectiveness of the simulation and yield recommendations for how future CAPS at the University of Mississippi can be improved.

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[124] "McLean Institute for Public Service and Community Engagement." McLean Institute for Public Service and Community Engagement. N.p., n.d. Web. 25 Mar. 2016. http://mclean.olemiss.edu/

[125] Ibid.

Currently, CAPS are conducted without built-in evaluation processes. In the future, further studies should evaluate whether or not changes made to the CAPS as suggested by this study are effective.

Expected Outcomes

Upon analyzing the pre experience and post experience surveys for the Community Action Poverty Simulation, it is expected that the results will show that the CAPS does increase awareness and inspire community action. Through experiencing the Poverty Simulation, it is expected that participants will have gained a deeper understanding of the factors at play in the lives of the impoverished. Despite literature that suggests some simulations do not result in a greater understanding, considering the fact that the majority of students are undergraduates, an increased knowledge about poverty is expected. In the initial surveys, it is expected that the means of the responses will be lower than those values selected after the experience due to the design of the survey. In general, lower values indicate a poorer understanding of the poverty situation and higher values indicate a greater knowledge of the situation. Considering the characteristics of participants for this CAPS, I expect that all cohorts will have a greater knowledge of the challenges the impoverished face after the simulation. More specifically, it is expected that the groups in which the survey respondents will be divided (classification, school of study, experience with poverty, gender, ethnicity, and age) will overall select higher values post simulation, but within the divisions, some categories will have larger differences between pre and post survey values. It is anticipated that the

group of participants (assuming there will be a large enough sample size) who have had experience with poverty, either directly or through volunteering, will have results that show a smaller change in means than those who have not been exposed to poverty. This is expected because I believe that experience with poverty elicits a greater understanding of the situation the impoverished face. Considering this expectation, I also expect that within the categories of classification, age, ethnicity, and school of study there will be differences between the averages of the values they select before and after the simulation. I expect to see a difference in comparing specific questions and in comparing the overall change in the average of their responses.

Upon analysis of the free-response, qualitative section of the post-experience survey, I expect that participants will be supportive of future poverty simulations. Further, I expect that they will directly cite transportation and applying for governmental benefits as challenges. In addition, it is my expectation that they will have a desire to learn more about poverty and about what they can do to better the lives of those living in poverty. Overall, it is expected that the poverty simulation will have been a positive and enlightening educational experience for participants. These expectations are based on my knowledge of the factors considered in planning the CAPS and my own experience as a participant in a previous CAPS.

Survey Participants

Survey respondents included those who participated in the CAPS facilitated by the McLean Institute at the University of Mississippi. Participation in the simulation was not limited based on demographics, but the majority of participants were white, college aged students who identify as part of the College of Liberal Arts. The total number of participants was 59.

Survey Design

This is a mixed method study of the effectiveness of the Community Action Poverty Simulation at the University of Mississippi as a tool for informing participants on the reality of the poverty situation in the United States. Participants were asked to partake in a survey before and after the CAPS, which was held on Tuesday, October 27th, 2015. An image depicting the set-up of the room for the CAPS can be found in the **Appendix**. Both the pre and post experience surveys include a section of 23 questions selected from four previously tested surveys based on their ability to evaluate participants' perceptions of the impoverished, understanding of conditions of poverty, and beliefs about the attributions of poverty. Within the survey developed from previously existing surveys, the questions were divided into the following categories: The Perceptions of the Impoverished, The Understanding Conditions of Poverty, and the Attributions of Poverty. Descriptions of these categories and a list of the questions within each category can be found in **Table 2.1**.

These 23 questions were included in the pre experience survey and the post experience survey in order to evaluate whether or not the CAPS affected participants' responses. In order to evaluate this, the questions allowed respondents to indicate a level of agreement with the statements included on a 5 point Likert Scale, with 1=Strongly Agree and 5=Strongly Disagree. A complete list of those categorized statements chosen and analyzed using Likert Analysis and their sources can be found in **Table 2.1**. These questions were selected and adapted from the Attributions of Poverty Scale JRIPE, the Undergraduate Attitudes Toward Poverty Scale, the Community Action Poverty Simulation Kit, and the Attitudes about Poverty Scale.

While both surveys included the 23 statements that used 5-point Likert Scale Analysis to gauge participants' perceptions, there are key differences in the pre- and post-experience surveys. The pre-experience survey recorded demographic characteristics and attitudinal factors. Grouping of respondents based on these characteristics was essential in understanding what other factors may affect participants' responses. The post-experience survey included free-response, open-ended questions that allowed the participants to freely express their thoughts about their experience during the poverty simulation.

Table 2.1. Categorization of Likert Scale

<u>Perceptions of the Impoverished:</u> Those questions that measure the participant's attitudes toward the impoverished and the effects of poverty on the impoverished.
1. Poor people are dishonest.
3. Poor people are different from the rest of society.
4. Poor people generally have lower intelligence than non-poor people.
7. Some poor people live better than I do, considering all their benefits.
12. There is a lot of fraud among welfare recipients.
14. Poor people are satisfied receiving welfare.
15. Most poor people are satisfied with their standard of living.
22. People with low income just need more budgeting skills.
23. People with low income have low self-esteem.
<u>Understanding of Conditions of Poverty:</u> Those questions that evaluate participants' general understanding of/attitudes towards governmental assistance programs, how the poor are treated, social service, and who they believe should help the poor.
5. The poor are treated the same as everyone else.
6. The community provides effective and efficient services to help families with low income live.
8. Society has the responsibility to help poor people
9. Government has the responsibility to help poor people.
10. Churches have the responsibility to help poor people.
11. Individuals have the responsibility to help poor people.
16. People get enough money to survive from welfare, food stamps, and other social programs.
19. The private sector has no role in improving the situation for people with low income.
<u>Attributions of Poverty:</u> Those questions that evaluate participant's attitudes towards the conditions of poverty and on what problems attribute to poverty.
2. People are poor due to circumstances beyond their control.
13. People with low income do not have to work as hard because of all of the services available to them.
17. Any person can get ahead in this country.
18. If poor people worked harder, they could escape poverty.
20. The financial pressures faced by the people with low income are no different than the financial pressures faced by other Americans.
21. I believe poor people create their own difficulties.
Attributions of Poverty Scale JRIPE: 2, 7, 12, 15
Undergraduate Attitudes Toward Poverty Scale: 1, 3, 4, 5, 14, 17, 18, 21
Community Action Poverty Simulation Kit: 6, 13, 16, 19, 20, 22, 23
Attitudes about Poverty Scale (Yun and Weaver 2010): 8, 9, 10, 11

Survey Development

Qualtrics, the university-licensed survey software, was used in the development of the pre-experience survey. Qualtrics is an online survey software that is user-friendly and ideal for collecting survey responses and for basic analysis. For the pre-experience survey, a forced-response mechanism was implemented. In scoring the data, questions two, eight, nine, ten, and eleven were reverse scored in order to enhance validity. In addition, Qualtrics Online Software anonymized responses, but allowed for the respondents' assigned role to be used in order to compare pre-experience and post-experience survey responses. On average, completion time of the survey was 5-10 minutes.

Analysis

After initial collection via Qualtrics, data were downloaded as an excel spreadsheet and imported in IBM SPSS. The post experience survey questions were input into the excel spreadsheet manually. In order to complete a comparative analysis of the data, a measure of the frequency, mean, range, and standard deviation for the majority of the question responses was calculated for the pre experience survey data set and for the post-experience survey data set. In terms of dichotomous questions, calculation of frequency is essential. In order to evaluate whether or not the differences between the pre and post experience responses was due to random chance, paired t-test analysis was utilized. If the p-value was less than or equal to 0.05, it was deemed that the response difference was statistically significant, meaning that the null hypothesis was disproven.

The null hypothesis in this case was that there would be no significant difference between the pre and post experience surveys. This significance was two-tailed and ninety-five percent was used as the threshold for statistical significance. When a difference between the surveys was considered to be statistically significant, the difference was only considered to not be due to random chance. No magnitude or extent of meaningful difference can be explained by t-test analysis. As a result, the percent change in means was calculated for the pre and post experience surveys.

In order to analyze the data, the responses from the Qualtrics surveys and hand-written post surveys were input into an excel spreadsheet organized in manner designed to ease operation of SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), a data analysis software. For the nominal data, only the frequencies were calculated in order to determine how many participants fell into each category. This calculation was essential in determining what future calculations would be considered valid, based on the number of participants that fit into each category. Once the quantitative data were completely compiled and these descriptive statistics were obtained, the decision about which participant characteristics to consider was made. This decision relied completely on the number of participants that can be categorized into each group. Each group should consist of approximately 10 people—data is strengthened when the number of participants that fall into each category is high. Although this is true, it should be noted that any significant trends observed in data sets with smaller sample sizes may also be considered. It was anticipated that the following would be categories of comparison: race/ethnicity, experience with poverty, schools of study, anticipated graduation date, and gender. Those questions that should be excluded from these descriptive statistics calculations include

the post-experience survey questions 24, 25, 26, 27, and 28 seeing as responses to these are qualitative.

In analysis of questions 1 through 23 in both the pre and post experience surveys, which used a Likert Scale to evaluate peoples' perceptions of the poverty situation, a statistically significant, positive change in means indicates the CAPS increased sentimentality towards and increased awareness of the poverty simulation. Questions 2, 8, 9, 10 and 11 were reverse scored in order to enhance validity. As aforementioned, initial frequencies and other descriptive statistics were calculated for the group as a whole. From that point on, each respondent's replies to the nominal questions were used in order to categorize them based on frequency data. Such calculations were used to determine tendencies of people who have similar experiences and the impact of the poverty simulation on their responses.

Those questions that required qualitative responses were analyzed and grouped based on the nature of the response, and a number of main themes were identified. These themes were analyzed and grouped in order to develop a code book for this qualitative data. The code book for each question can be found in **Table 2.2**. This is useful in that it groups each individual response and categorizes the data. The qualitative data is particularly useful in improving the Poverty Simulation experience in the future and explaining why people felt a certain way, while the other questions analyze how impactful the CAPS at the University of Mississippi was. In addition, key quotes that are deemed useful for the purposes of describing the experience were identified. The combination of this qualitative data with the quantitative data will be analyzed and

incorporated into my report of the effectiveness of the inaugural Community Action Poverty Simulation at the University of Mississippi as a didactic tool.

Approval of the Institutional Review Board

Research involving human subjects must be approved by the University of Mississippi's Institutional Review Board before any portion of the study is completed. According to the Institutional Review Board at the University of Mississippi**,** "the role of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) is to review all proposed research involving human subjects to ensure that subjects are treated ethically and that their rights and welfare are adequately protected."[126] The required materials, as found in the **Appendix**, were submitted to the IRB through the Screening/Abbreviated IRB Application. Information submitted include the personal involved with research, funding sources, consent procedures, project summary, recruitment materials, the informed consent form, the pre-experience survey link, and the post-experience survey. In addition, two amendments were submitted after IRB approval was obtained.

[126] *Institutional Review Board*. The University of Mississippi, 2011. Web. 07 Feb. 2016.

Table 2.2. Code Book

Challenges: Where the challenges the participants experienced during the poverty simulation are described.
• Harsh conditions: where conditions are described as especially harsh. Includes responses that describe making tough decisions and feelings of helplessness.
• Availability of information: where a general lack of information about available resources or the rules of the poverty simulation were cited as the main challenges.
• Lack of Time: Where time was an often cited limitation to success in accomplishing the tasks assigned to participants and in navigating the system.
• Emotional strain: where feelings such as stress and frustration with navigating the system and the motivation for making certain decisions when they faced challenges are described.
• Planning: where planning and utilization of available resources such as transportation passes and income were heavily cited by participants as challenges in navigating the system.
Practice Improvement: Where respondents describe what changes can be made to enhance the poverty simulation.
• No changes: where participants state that they would not change anything about the poverty simulation experience at the University of Mississippi:
• Facilitation techniques: where certain changes should be made in order to make the experience more constructive and realistic.
• Logistical changes: where changes, such as allowing more time for initial orientation, to the simulation could be made
o Increase in time: where a need for more time is described by participants.
o Supplying more: where participants describe material things such as folders, tables, and a larger room, that they believe would have enhanced their experience.
o Orientation: where changes to participant orientation in relation to the explanation of the rules, guidelines, and set-up are suggested.
• Pre-experience planning: where changes in the planning and setting up of the poverty simulation before the event are suggested.
• Training: where others who did not take the simulation seriously, including facilitators who appeared to not have knowledge of their roles, are described as distractors.
• Organization of people: where a need for better systems of informing participants and assigning roles were suggested.
Predicted Long-term Effect of Participation
• Inspiration: where a desire to be involved in helping the poor stemming from participation in the CAPS is described.
• Existing Desire to help: where a passion for helping the impoverished that was not inspired by this experience is described.
• No Desire to Help: where some respondents do not want to help or simply do not believe their efforts would make a difference.

• Education: where education as a factor that could better the poverty situation is described.
• Informing the Public: where education of those who have not experienced poverty is suggested in order to help them better understand the poverty situation.
• Education of the Impoverished: where efforts to inform the impoverished concerning available resources are suggested.
• Private Efforts: where development of food banks, private sector involvement, and other non-governmental assistance programs were suggested as possible solutions.
• Political action: participants suggest that the key to change lies in the policy sector.
Reasons for Attendance: Where participants describe why they participated.
• Peer recommendation: where the recommendation of an acquaintance or facilitator inspired participation.
• Desire to learn: where people describe being intrigued by the idea of a poverty simulation.
• Experience: where the poverty simulation as an experience that will help in future careers is described as the inspiration for signing up.

CHAPTER 4

DESIGN IMPLEMENTATION

The pre-experience survey was launched via Qualtrics on September 29, 2015. A week before the simulation, which took place on October 27th, 2015, participants received a reminder email requesting that they follow the URL and complete the survey. After participants' voluntary registration for participation in the McLean Institute's Poverty Simulation at the university, participants were contacted via email, assigned a role, and asked to follow the URL link and complete the survey. There were a total of 65 responses. Incomplete responses, and those responses that were not able to be matched to a post-experience survey were deleted. This resulted in a total of 59 responses.

Descriptive statistics, such as the means and frequencies, of both the pre- and post-experience survey were calculated for all responses and for each categorization of responses. Frequencies and means of responses for the pre-experience survey and post-experience survey were also calculated and compared for each category described above. In addition, means for each factor within the categories, such as male and female in the gender category, were compared. Frequency and means calculations were also conducted for the categories in which the 23 Likert Scale questions were divided (Perceptions of the Impoverished, Understanding Conditions of Poverty, and Attributions of Poverty) in order to determine if any category saw a statistically significant difference in survey responses. Paired T-test analysis, where a significance is indicated when $p \leq 0.05$, was

implemented in order to test for statistical significance between the comparisons. In addition, the percent change in mean for each pre and post survey response was calculated.

Concerning the free-response questions of the post-survey, qualitative coding methods were used to identify main themes of each question and to categorize those responses. This method allows for a general understanding and identification of repeated themes of respondents' free responses. For the question concerning the challenges participants faced, five codes were identified. For the question regarding improvement of the simulation, eight codes were identified. For responses concerning the expected long-term impact of participation in the simulation, seven codes were identified. Through coding, each participants' responses were able to be considered and grouped in order to reach conclusions regarding the question at hand.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

Demographic Characteristics

With a total of 59 respondents, there were 15 (25.42%) respondents in their teenage years, 42 (71.19%) in their early twenties, and 2 (3.39%) above the age of typical college students. Female responses were higher in number than male responses with 37 (62.71%) and 22 (37.29%) respectively. A majority of the respondents were in the process of completing or had completed their fourth year of college, with a total sample size of 23 (38.98%). There were 16 (27.12%) third year students, 12 respondents (20.34%) were second year students, and 6 respondents (10.17%) were first year students. Students who identified as students in the College of the Liberal Arts were the majority, with a total of 38 members (64.41%). The second highest represented group, with 12 members (20.34%), claimed to belong to an undergraduate college of study with a science-based curriculum (School of Engineering, School of Applied Sciences, and members of the Health Related Professions Advising Office). The remainder of respondents claimed to belong to the following groups: 4 to the College of Business Administration, 5 to the College of Education, 2 to the College of New Media and Journalism, and 6 to post-graduate studies (School of Law, School of Pharmacy, and Graduate School) at the University of Mississippi (6.78%, 8.47%, 3.39%, and 10.17% respectively).

Participation was open to all students at the University of Mississippi. This study is disproportionately weighted towards those who identify as white. A total of 51 respondents identified as white, 6 identified as black, one identified as Asian, and one classified herself as none of the listed racial groups (86.45%, 10.17%, 1.69%, and 1.69%, respectively). Considering these factors and limitations due to small sample sizes, this study can only adequately generalize about the views of white participants and those participants who indicated they are a part of the College of Liberal Arts. It is also important to note that, as a result of participant recruiting methods, those who volunteered to participate could be those who are interested in learning about poverty. This could result in sample bias because those who are interested could have been more likely to be influenced by the experiment than the majority of the student population.

General Responses

Pre Experience Survey

On every question, responses ranged from 1-5 on a Likert Scale. Low scores indicate a poor understanding of each of the three categorizations of questions (attributions of poverty, understanding conditions of poverty, and perceptions of impoverished). The pre-experience survey means for all respondents ranged from 2.964-3.780 (questions 23 and 1 and 15, respectively). The descriptive statistics can be found in **Table 5.1** in the Appendix. The standard deviation for these questions ranged from 0.9297 (question 2; mean: 3.220) to 1.4544 (question 5; mean: 1.4544). Comparison of

these questions to the post experience questions elicit results upon which the study's conclusions can be based.

Post Experience Survey

For the post experience survey, mean responses ranged from 2.746 (Q23) to 4.475 (Q13 and Q15). Standard deviations ranged from 0.7713 (Q1, mean: 4.305) to 1.4664 (Q17, mean: 3.475). It is particularly interesting that for four (Q1, Q4, Q11, Q15) of the questions, respondents did not select a value less than 2 and for one of these four (Q1), a value lower than 3 was not selected. Questions 1, 4, and 15 belong to the Perceptions of Impoverished category. Question 11 belongs to the Understanding Conditions of Poverty category. The descriptive statistics can be found in **Table 5.2** in the Appendix. The post experience survey also included five free-response questions that addressed the experience as a whole. These results were categorized and conclusions about future poverty simulations were drawn from the data.

Comparison of Pre and Post Experience Data

Comparison of the descriptive statistics and calculation of parametric statistics for the pre and post experience surveys indicated an overall increase in the means for the majority of questions. Higher scores on the majority of the post survey questions indicate that the Community Action Poverty Simulation was successful and that the expected outcomes were correct. As previously stated, a successful simulation is measured by the pre and post experience surveys and a statistically significant increase in means between the two surveys indicates that the simulation dissolved misconceptions, educated

participants, encouraged community action, and inspired a new desire to learn about the poverty situation. Although comparisons showed an increase in the means for the majority of questions, question 23 showed a decrease in the mean from the pre experience survey to the post experience survey. Including question 23, the difference between the means ranged from -.1186 to .8644 (Q23 and Q14, respectively). Excluding question 23, the means ranged from .0169 to .8644 (Q17 and Q14, respectively). Differences between the standard deviations ranged from: 1.2779-1.754 (Q1 and Q5, respectively). The range of the percent change in the mean was -4.14% to 22.22% (Q23 and Q13, respectively). A paired samples t-test was calculated to compare the overall mean from each respondents' response to each of the 23 questions for the pre and post experience surveys. The results of this parametric test indicate whether or not the difference in means is statistically significant or due to random chance. It was determined that the difference in means was not due to random chance in 19 of the 23 questions. Questions 3, 6, 17, and 23 did not have a statistically significant increase in means, meaning the null hypothesis (that there would be no significant difference between the pre and post experience surveys) for these questions cannot be disproven. Although this is true, this does not mean the Community Action Poverty Simulation was unsuccessful. It should also be noted that for questions 3, 6, 17, and 23 whose differences were deemed insignificant by T-test analysis, the percentage change in means were 8.62% increase, 7.98% increase, 0.489% increase, and 4.14% decrease respectively. The overall mean of responses to all 23 questions for the pre experience survey was 3.4681 and 3.9246 for the post experience survey ($t(22) = -9.430$, $p < 0.00$). The overall percentage change in means was a 13.16% increase. These statistics are organized in **Table 5.3** in the Appendix.

Categorization of Likert Scale Questions

Those 23 questions that were identical and used for comparison on the pre and post experience surveys were divided into three categories based on their ability to determine participant's understandings of certain aspects of poverty. These categories are: Perceptions of Impoverished, Understanding of Conditions of Poverty, and Attributions of Poverty. Descriptions of these categories can be found in **Table 2.1** in Chapter 2**.** The following describes the comparisons of the pre experience and post experience survey descriptive statistics for each question within these categories.

Perceptions of the Impoverished

This category included statements like "People with low income just need more budgeting skills," "There is a lot of fraud among welfare recipients," and "Poor people generally have lower intelligence than non-poor people." This group includes questions 1, 3, 4, 7, 12, 14, 15, 22, and 23. Within this category, the mean increased for every value except for question 23. This indicates that the simulation was successful in informing participants about those conditions of poverty that impact the attitudes and habits of the poor. In addition, the standard deviation decreased for every value except for question 23. The means ranged from -.1186 to .8644 (questions 23 and 14, respectively). Percent changes for these questions ranged from a 4.14% decrease to a 19.32% increase in mean values (questions 23 and 14, respectively). The majority of the results showed a statistically significant increase in means, except for question number 3 ($t(58) = -1.592$, $p < .117$). **Table 5.4** in the Appendix displays the descriptive and parametric statistics for

each question in this category. The overall mean of responses to these nine questions for the pre experience survey was 3.367 and 3.844 for the post experience survey ($t(8) = -5.172$, $p<0.001$). The overall percentage change in means was a 14.16% increase.

Understanding of the Conditions of Poverty

This category includes questions that were grouped together (questions 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 16, and 19) because of their categorization as statements that determine participants' understanding of the conditions of poverty as described in **Table 2.1**. The following are examples of such statements: "The community provides effective and efficient services to help families with low income live" and "People get enough money to survive from welfare, food stamps, and other social programs."

The means of the responses for these questions on the pre-experience survey ranged from 3.373-3.763, with the lowest (question 19) having a standard deviation of 1.0651 and the highest (question 5) having a standard deviation of 1.4544. The means for these questions on the post-experience survey ranged from 3.492-4.254, with the lowest (question 6) having a standard deviation of 1.0401 and the highest (question 5) having a standard deviation of 0.9576. For each of the questions, there was an increase in the mean between the pre and post experience surveys and a decrease in the standard deviation. A decrease in standard deviation is good because it shows more unified viewpoint and a better general understanding of the participants' experience. The difference in the means ranged from .0678-.5932 (questions 6 and 16) and the difference in standard deviation ranged from: 1.1191-1.7457 (questions 19 and 5). T-test analysis, to determine the

significance of the difference between the questions shows a significant difference for every question except for number 5. For number 5, chance cannot be ruled out as a cause for the difference between the responses. The percent change in the means for these questions ranged from a 7.98% increase to a 16.75% increase (questions 6 and 16, respectively). A summary of the results described above can be found in **Table 5.5**.

Attributions of Poverty

These questions (2, 13, 17, 18, 20, and 21) were grouped together because of their categorization as questions that evaluate participant's attitudes towards the conditions of poverty and what problems attribute to poverty. An example of such a statement is: "I believe poor people create their own difficulties." An increase in means from the pre experience survey to the post experience survey for this category shows an understanding of the conditions of poverty and those factors that attribute to the poverty situation. The means increased between the pre and post experience surveys response for all questions in this category. For half of the questions in this category, the standard deviation increased (questions 2, 17, and 18), but decreased for the remaining questions (13, 20, and 21). The difference in the means ranged from 0.0169 (question 17) to 0.8136 (questions 13) and the difference in standard deviation ranged from 1.3310 to 1.5478 (questions 18 and 13). The majority of the pre and post experience surveys show that the increase in means for the questions were statistically significant. An exception to this trend was question 17 ($t(58) = 0.087$, $p < 0.931$), which showed an increase in percent change in means of 0.489%. The percent changes for these questions ranged from an

increase of 0.489% to an increase of 18.42% for questions 17 and 2, respectively. A summary of the descriptive and parametric statistics of the results described above can be found in **Table 5.6** and **Table 5.7**.

Results Categorized by Participant Characteristics

Experience with Poverty

Responses to the pre and post experience surveys were divided based upon participants' responses to the pre experience survey questions 24-31. The categories are mainly demographic, but also include a group of questions that determine participants' level of experience with poverty. Question 25 was discarded because all except one participant claimed to have indirect experience with poverty.

In order to determine the number of participants who had direct experience with poverty, responses from questions 24 and 26 were analyzed. Those who indicated that they or their family had received some form of governmental benefits and those who described their families as poor were grouped together as having direct experience with poverty. It is important to note that between those who claimed to have no direct experience with poverty (n=44) and those who did (n=15), the average pre experience survey results show an average of 3.36 for those with no experience and an average of 3.80 for those who claim to have direct experience. This is consistent with the expected results. For those respondents who claim to have had no direct experience with poverty, the percent change in means ranged from -2.47% (Q23) to 29.29% (Q14). Upon t-test analysis of the questions for those who claim to have no direct experience with poverty,

the majority of responses indicate a significant difference between the pre and post experience surveys. Those that do not show a statistically significant change are questions 3, 8, 9, 10, 11, 17, 20, and 23. A summary of the findings concerning those with no direct experience with poverty can be found in **Table 5.8** in the Appendix. Although these questions do not show a statistically significant increase, it is important to note that all except number 23 had a percentage increase in the means ranging from 1.43% (Q17) to 9.38% (Q9). Question 23 had a decrease of -2.47%.

As expected, for those who claim to have direct experience with poverty, calculation of parametric statistics shows only questions 1, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, and 14 to have a statistically significant increase or decrease in the mean. Only questions 6, 12, 16, 17, and 23 saw a decrease in the percent change of the means. This indicates that a large portion of those with direct experience with poverty are not as likely to gain new perspectives from participation in the Community Action Poverty Simulation. A summary of these questions and the descriptive and parametric statistics can be found in **Table 5.8** in the Appendix.

Demographics

Gender

Male respondents showed an increase in the mean for all questions except numbers 6 and 23 and the majority of questions underwent a decrease in standard deviation. The percent change in mean ranged from a decrease of 1.64% (Q23) to an increase of 29.73% (Q16). For males, a majority (65%) of questions had a statistically

significant change in means for the Likert Scale Questions. Female respondents had an increase in mean for the pre and post experience surveys for all questions except for questions 17 and 23 and all decreased in standard deviation except for questions 2, 9, 18, and 23. The percentage change in mean ranged from a decrease of 5.56% (Q23) to an increase by 26.62% (Q14). The overall mean for males before the experience was 3.469 and after the experience was 3.9723. The overall mean for females before the experience was 3.468 and after the experience was 3.896. Both males ($t(22) = -9.429$, $p < 0.000$) and females ($t(22) = -7.482$, $p < 0.000$) showed a statistically significant change in means. The change in means for males was 0.5033 and for females was 0.428. On average, females scored lower than males on both the pre and post experience survey questions. The results regarding gender are summarized in **Table 5.9**.

Anticipated Graduation Date

Participants were divided by their expected graduation date into the following categories: those beyond or currently completing year 4 of college (n=23), those currently completing year 3 (n=16), those currently completing year 2 (n=12), and those currently completing their first year of college (n=6). Two participants did not respond to this question. The small number of participants who are first year college students was taken into consideration upon analysis of results. For those students who claimed to have completed or to be currently completing their fourth year of college, an increase in means was seen for all except questions 6, 13, and 23. There was a percentage change in mean of -4.48% (Q23) to 19.7% (Q12). Parametric statistical calculations show that 12 of the questions did not show a statistically significant increase in the means of the responses. Those students completing their third year of college showed an increase in means for all

questions except question 23. The percentage change in mean ranged from -5% (Q23) to 75% (Q22). A total of 12 questions did not show a statistically significant increase in the means of the responses. For students in their sophomore years, a decrease in means was observed for questions 3, 7, 17, 21, 22, and 23. There were no statistically significant differences in means observed for this group. The percent change in means ranged from -15.22% (3) to 18.61% (5). For those 6 students who claimed to be completing their freshman year, a reduction in the means was observed for questions 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 20. The range in percent change in means was -19.98% (Q10) to 44.44% (Q14). A statistically significant difference between each of these four groups both before and after participation was observed except for in the comparison between the first and second years of college. The results regarding anticipated graduation year are summarized in **Table 5.10**.

Age

Respondents were also split into groups based on age to determine whether or not age was a factor that affected their responses. The age range of participants was 18-35 and respondents were grouped into age groups. These age groups were: teenagers (n=15), those in their early twenties (n=42), and those above typical college age (18-23; n=2). Statistical analysis was not performed on the responses from those above typical college age because of the small sample size. For those in their teenage years, the percentage change in means of their responses ranged from a decrease of 11.36% (Q23) to an increase of 29.79% (Q14). Question 6 had a 0% change in means. In further comparison of this groups pre and post experience surveys, the majority of the questions showed a decrease in standard deviation. Comparison of the two surveys revealed that only one

question yielded a statistically significant change for this age group. In comparison to the younger group, it appears that the poverty simulation was more successful for those in their early twenties. Statistical analysis showed that the majority of questions showed a statistically significant increase from the pre experience survey. The percentage change in means for this group ranged from -.86% (Q23) to 25.87% (Q14). A summary of the results described above can be found in **Table 5.11**.

School of Study

Respondents' school of study was of particular interest because it was expected that results could show which groups benefited the most from participation in the CAPS. Participants came from 11 of the schools of study at The University of Mississippi. It is important to note that some participants indicated that they belong to 2 or more schools of study at the University of Mississippi. These were further grouped into the College of Liberal Arts, Business Administration, School of Education, those schools that have a science-based curriculum, the School of Journalism, and Post-Graduate Programs. Those responses that fall under the category of the College of Liberal Arts showed an increase in the mean and a decrease in the standard deviation for the majority of the question. The percentage change in means ranged from a 3.17% decrease (Q17) to 19.83% increase (Q19 and Q23). T-test comparison analysis shows that the majority of responses showed a statistically significant difference between the means from the pre and post surveys. The School of Business Administration showed an increase in means for the majority of responses. No change in the means for question 12 and 20 were observed. The standard deviations for this group was unique in that the standard deviation did not change for 6 of the questions (Q8, Q14, Q17, Q18, Q19, and Q23). An increase in standard deviation was

observed for questions 2, 6, 7, and 9. The percentage change in mean showed a 0% change (Q20 and Q23) to an increase of 81.82% (Q13). Parametric statistics showed that the majority of questions had a statistically significant increase in means from the pre experience survey to the post experience survey. Although the School of Education had a small sample size, the data were particularly intriguing. The percent change in mean range for this group was a 6.25% decrease (Q12) to a 90.1% increase (Q9). An increase in the means from the pre experience survey to the post experience survey was observed for the majority of the questions. A total of 12 questions had a decrease in standard deviation. Comparison analysis showed that the majority of questions had a statistically significant increase in means from the pre experience survey to the post experience survey.

Responses of those participants that identified as members of the School of Health Related Professions, School of Engineering, and School of Applied Sciences were grouped together based on their science based curricula (n=12). For this group, an increase in mean for the majority of questions was observed, while questions 1 and 6 saw a decrease and questions 8, 10, 11, and 23 saw no change at all. A decrease in standard deviation was only seen for questions 1, 5, 7, 12, 14-16, 18, and 20-23. The percent change in means ranged from a decrease of 18.92% (Q23) to an increase by 37.14% (Q2). T-test analysis for statistically significant change in means showed that only 7 of the 23 questions had responses whose differences were statistically significant. The School of Journalism data were excluded from the results because of the small sample size (n=2). Post-Graduate programs were grouped together based on the fact that participants have received college degrees. This group (n=6) had an increase in the means and a decrease in

standard deviation for the majority of comparisons made. The change in means ranged from a decrease of 0.5 (Q14) to an increase of 1.1667 (Q4). The percent change in mean ranged from a decrease of 11.11% to an increase of 21.94% for questions 14 and 2, respectively. T-test analysis showed that, in general, there was a statistically significant increase in means for participants grouped as post-graduate students. These results are summarized in **Table 5.12** in the Appendix.

Post Experience Qualitative Responses

This portion of the post experience survey allowed all respondents to freely respond to a number of questions concerning the simulations challenges, successes, improvement of the experience, and indicate any desire to learn more about poverty. Common themes concerning challenges participants faced during the simulation were harsh conditions, lack of information, time, emotional strain, and resource management. Suggestions for improvement of future poverty simulations were to not make any adjustments, or to make adjustments in the planning process or logistics of the simulation. Changes involving materials, supplies, and organization are listed among some suggested changes. Where participants made suggestions for improving the poverty situation, common themes were increased awareness, policy changes, a new desire to help, no desire to help, educating the impoverished, food banks, and private sector efforts are described. Participants claimed to attend the poverty simulation because they had personal relationship with one of the facilitators, they had a desire to experience what the

impoverished experience, or because they saw it as an enlightening opportunity to learn about others.

Challenges

Virtually all respondents cited one or more of five obstacles as challenges during their experience with the poverty simulation. The harsh conditions category, where conditions and tough choices made by participants during the poverty simulation are described as especially harsh includes responses that describe making tough decisions and feelings of helplessness:

> "The most challenging things were choosing between things that I have never had to choose between before, like buying food or paying mortgage."
>
> "I had no voice. As a nine year old, I couldn't make any of the decisions and spent most of the time home alone. It was frustrating and lonely."
>
> "Not knowing all of my community's resources and whether they were worth investigating for the price of transportation. I also thought circumstances were generally harsh."
>
> "As a 13 year old, I felt helpless. I couldn't get a job to help provide, but money was still needed for school. It lead to low self-esteem. Lack of time was stressful as well."
>
> "Lack of time and the dehumanizing effects of bureaucracy of poverty."
>
> "Dealing with the curveballs that life throws at us. One bit of bad luck almost made us lose everything."

Some respondents indicated that lack of information about available resources or the rules of the poverty simulation were the main challenges:

> "I struggled not utilizing all of the resources that were available to me. I did not know the appropriate methods to obtain help."
>
> "I didn't know where to go or who to talk to."
>
> "It's difficult to understand what is available to you if you can't learn about it."
>
> "Not knowing all of my community's resources and whether they were worth investigating for the price of transportation. I also thought circumstances were generally harsh."
>
> "Lack of information of services from faith services and community agency."
>
> "Also, a lack of education was a difficult challenge not knowing which services could be provided, etc."

Time was an often cited limitation to success in accomplishing the tasks assigned to participants and in navigating the system:

> "The lack of time to plan a strategy to make our budget work."
>
> "I was a child, so lack of control was hard. I had to watch my parents struggle. Also, we just ran out of time each week. My mom couldn't get the bills in on time, and it really hurt us."
>
> "Getting a job was really difficult. Also, transportation was problematic, paying for bills on time, our power cutting off, and lack of education and skills with my character."
>
> "Lack of consistent funds and time when going to 'school' all day, you can't be working."

> "There were so many places I needed to go, but some would be closed or too busy to see me in time."
>
> "The lack of resources and the time; I worked full time to support a family of 3 and the biggest problem (besides income) was there wasn't enough time in the day to work and do everything."

Participants also described the stress and frustration with navigating the system and the motivation for making certain decisions when they faced challenges:

> "I was a child, but I still felt the emotional toll of having stress and worry about money. The most challenging part, aside of the emotional angst, was not knowing what to do. Just like poor people don't know what to do."
>
> "Juggling all of the challenges with paying bills and the stress associated with it."
>
> "Resisting temptation for theft and fraud."
>
> "Not being able to interact much, or help, because I was a child."

Planning and utilization of available resources such as transportation passes and income were heavily cited by participants as challenges in navigating the system:

> "The transportation issues were difficult to overcome. My spouse used all of the cards to get to work, so we had to borrow from neighbors at a higher cost to get our resources; dealing with a child with a discipline problem."
>
> "Lack of money, resources, accessibility felt personal because of our low income."
>
> "Getting a job was really difficult. Also, transportation was problematic, paying for bills on time, our power cutting off, and lack of education and skills with my character."

"Transportation was a big deal! We never had enough money for passes!"

"Lack of income because I could not get a job"

"Lack of resources including money and time; pawn shops were not very honest with what they gave for certain materials."

"The most challenging part was keeping up the balance and amount owed, especially after running out of benefits."

"Dividing responsibilities and keeping track of what needs to be done."

"Transportation was always an issue—it's difficult to understand what is available to you if you can't learn about it."

"Lack of transportation, finances, and time."

"Lack of money, husband missed work, government took away Momma's check, bank calling us was stressful."

"Lack of resources not enough money and we kept being robbed."

"Making enough money to make mortgage, transportation, and food."

"Not having the income of my father who was incarcerated. I was not able to attend community college because I had to take care of the household and my 3 younger siblings."

"Time, lack of access to childcare, lack of access to transportation."

Responses to these questions indicate that the challenges during the poverty simulation are similar to those challenges that those living in the conditions of poverty face daily. Participant recognition of these challenges indicates a successful poverty simulation.

Practice Improvement

Suggestions concerning the implementation of the poverty simulation were requested. In a slim number of responses, it was suggested that no changes be made to the poverty simulation experience at the University of Mississippi:

> "I would not make any suggestions, only more people should be involved."

A larger number of respondents indicated that certain changes should be made in order to make the experience more constructive and realistic:

> "Find a way to make consequences feel more realistic? I thought it was great."
>
> "I was still very confused going into it. It might help to have someone explain what's going to happen."
>
> "Explain the different areas with more detail and be more descriptive on what a person can do with certain conditions."
>
> "Make it two months to see what continuation looks like."
>
> "More relevance with health and healthcare, as those are definitely things that people worry about as much as bills and food. I also think food scarcity is another focus and getting the right nutrients."
>
> "Maybe making the circumstances feel even more real, more pressure."

Despite a number of participants claiming the simulation should be better explained, some described how not explaining all of the rules makes the simulation more realistic:

> "I don't know exactly how well everything was explained because I was late coming in, but a girl in my group made a good point—there is no instruction manual for poverty."

Participants described where logistical changes, such as allowing more time for initial orientation, to the simulation could be made. A middle class framing of a low income environment was expressed by the participants. A need for more time is described by participants:

> "Allow more time in each 'week.'"
>
> "Allowing more time initially to plan a budget."
>
> "More time—I could have prepared a budget if given time; more knowledge—I did not fully understand the rules or requirements for activities before the beginning."
>
> "Maybe a longer briefing about what we had to do, or maybe sending out the information beforehand."
>
> "Maybe give more time; I felt that decisions were made irrationally due to lack of time."
>
> "Adding a few minutes to the week would help when accounting for large numbers of people."

Concerning logistical changes, participants also explained what supplies they believe would have enhanced their experience:

> "Giving groups timers so we make sure we don't miss deadlines; giving dates payments are due rather than saying during the month."
>
> "Have one additional staffer at the bank, or determine which participants live where there is no bank (or Walmart—checks can be cashed at many)."
>
> "Explain that you have to go to the doctor for prescriptions, and explain that you can go back to places if they say they're closed. Also, actually give the part-time workers their pay, every dollar counts, nothing is 'negligible.'"

"Giving children more schools."

"2 bankers rather than 2 mortgage people."

In addition to the previous logistical changes, changes to participant orientation in relation to the explanation of the rules, guidelines, and set-up were suggested:

"I was still very confused going into it. It might help to have someone explain what's going to happen."

"Informing participants where to go for basic needs as well as extras (no idea about church)."

"Explaining the transportation part better."

"Better articulate that entrepreneurship is a possible source of income."

"Better explain what the resources are used for (unless that was the point…)."

Aside from logistical improvements, participants also suggested where changes in the planning and setting up of the poverty simulation before the event should be made:

"Try to divide activities up more (space stores, school, resources); number each nametag for debrief groups."

"More room; it was difficult to get around."

"Folders to hold all resources and surveys to participants; possible character profiles for participants or simulation examples."

"A list of what each service offers."

"Have a 'town' map."

"If we could have a table for each group that would be very helpful."

Some participants felt as if others did not take the simulation seriously, including facilitators who appeared to not have knowledge of their roles:

> "Having participants to take it seriously. There was one person who made it hard to focus, and it is because they did not take it seriously."

> "I suppose making the experience slightly more serious (although that is difficult to do in the nature of the setting)."

> "More supervisors to make sure all rules are enforced consistently."

> "Training the station proctors, teachers, doctors, policies; they were not familiar with our needs."

A need for better organization in terms of informing participants and assigning roles was suggested:

> "Maybe a longer briefing about what we had to do, or maybe sending out the information beforehand."

> "I was the only one who had to complete the simulation by myself without a family; maybe make more people do this or none instead of just one person."

Predicted Long-term Effect of Participation

Participants were asked their opinions on what should be done to address poverty and whether or not the simulation impacted their desire to be involved in efforts to address poverty. Virtually all respondents claimed to have a desire to be involved in helping the poor:

> "I definitely have a desire to continue serving those that are impoverished, especially in Mississippi."

> "I feel like I should help some, now."
>
> "I definitely want to talk about poverty in a way that de-stigmatizes it."
>
> "I would love to help with College CORPS."
>
> "I do have a desire to be more involved."
>
> "I definitely want to help and serve others more."
>
> "I think doing more things like this would help people better understand… I definitely want to help make a change."
>
> "Apparently there are quite a few more programs/organizations than I realized for helping people in poverty, and I am now really wanting to take action to help people in poverty because it seems as if we must not be doing much right now. I really want to love people through this."

Other respondents express a passion for helping the impoverished that was not inspired by this experience:

> "I think my efforts are the same, it is something I am passionate about. There should be more awareness about poverty in our community and state."
>
> "We have a note to be advocates for the impoverished by spreading awareness about their unjust situation. I plan to have a better voice for those in poverty."

Some respondents simply do not believe their efforts would make a difference:

> "Poverty is hard, it's a two-sided sword and doesn't have a solution. I don't think I'm suited in fighting poverty."

Participants cited education as a factor that could better the poverty situation. Education of those who have not experienced poverty is suggested in order to help them better understand the poverty simulation:

> "I think before anything can be done, a conversation needs to be started to spread awareness. I have and will continue to help address/fix poverty."
>
> "Get the word out. People have to want to help in order for change to occur."
>
> "I think poverty can be improved, but we also need to raise awareness. I do have a desire to help others with basic things like reading, which play a part in poverty."
>
> "Lawmakers should be required to experience something like this so they can vote with knowledge of the situation rather than just numbers and charts."
>
> "I believe that to address the issue, it is important to be more involved as well as educate myself and others on the seriousness of poverty and create mechanisms to better society."
>
> "Education about the pervasive nature and impact of poverty is key, I think. If more people can have experiences like this, they may be moved to support education and legislation that supports people in low income realities."
>
> "I think policy makers should be required to go through a similar simulation before making decisions about welfare, etc."
>
> "Education and more awareness of poverty may help."
>
> "We need to raise more awareness for people who are oblivious."

For the impoverished, education concerning available resources is suggested:

> "I think in some ways poverty can be assisted by education, education of poor people on where to go for help and how to budget and education of the public."
>
> "Find ways to increase information of services to families, such as sending information home with students."

Development of food banks, private sector involvement, and other non-governmental assistance programs were suggested as possible solutions:

> "I would like to help and I think donations to a shelter and food banks are my best way to help."
>
> "I believe that the private sector can do a lot to help, by supporting socially conscious businesses, we can fund projects to help people get on their feet."
>
> "Make a bigger effort to get people to understand what MANA Food Pantry does. Host poverty events…."
>
> "Food stability/scarcity is key! Education and employment are essential. Increase food pantry involvement."
>
> "Donate to food banks and get more involved in local church work."

Some participants suggested that the key to change lies in the policy sector:

> "I think policies that address income inequality are key to addressing poverty. I have been concerned and want an acute knowledge of poverty globally, so this informed me about Mississippi."
>
> "This practically won't happen, but I definitely want to support government initiatives for those in poverty more, and just be more generous."
>
> "The best thing for poverty is education about available resources, and making sure policies reflect the need for change."
>
> "Rhetoric about the poor should be less patronizing and ignorant; more data based politics and voting decisions; smarter and generous budgeting that isn't wasteful; I've gained an enhanced desire for sure."

In the majority of cases, participants claimed that the solution to bettering the poverty situation lies in increasing awareness and educating individuals.

Reasons for Attendance

Participants overwhelmingly claimed that more people should have an experience like the poverty simulation, but their reasons for attending varied. The majority of respondents claimed to have attended the Community Action Poverty Simulation at the University of Mississippi because of the recommendation of an acquaintance or facilitator. Others participated because they viewed it as an enlightening experience, they wanted to gain a clearer perspective, or because they viewed the poverty simulation as an experience that will help them in their future careers.

Analysis of Results

Overall, results show that for the group of participants, the poverty simulation was successful. The goal of the poverty simulation was to allow participants to experience the daily challenges of living in poverty and a successful experience is indicated by an increase in the means of each question on the Likert Scale. In general, those that indicated they have experience with poverty show an increased awareness of the poverty situation in the United States. For the three categories of the Likert Scale questions, the questions were designed to help experimenters gain an understanding of the participants' perceptions of the impoverished, understanding of the conditions of poverty, and the attributions of poverty. An increase in means for each category indicates that the participants have gained a more realistic understanding of each category.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

General Findings

Overall, the results from the study of the success of the inaugural Community Action Poverty Simulation at the University of Mississippi show that the simulation was a successful didactic tool. Poverty simulations aim to raise awareness about the challenges of poverty, confirm the need for more widespread analysis. The purpose of this study was to analyze the poverty simulation that took place on October 27, 2015 in Oxford, MS as a tool for achieving greater awareness and promoting community action. As previously explained, public perception plays a major role in combatting the barriers of poverty through the development of community action systems and effective policies. In order to create effective solutions and overcome the barriers of poverty, a greater understanding of the poverty situation is necessary.

The poverty simulation aims to simulate the conditions of poverty, including the psychological, social, and economic barriers the impoverished face daily. In modern times, the perpetuation of the culture of poverty as described in Chapter 2 results in the perpetuation of the circumstances of poverty. As previously explained, if the impoverished are treated poorly in comparison to how the rest of society is treated, the

impoverished are less likely to take actions towards self-betterment.[127] Generalizations, perceptions, and misconceptions of the poverty situation directly impact the manner in which society responds to the poverty situation. Our nation is experiencing the effect of the negative framing of the poverty situation presently. Generally speaking, the predicted outcome of the poverty simulation was that participants will leave with a greater understanding of the impoverished and a greater understanding of those situational challenges the impoverished face. The CAPS at The University of Mississippi was successful in accomplishing these goals and a number of potential changes in the implementation of future poverty simulations have been determined.

It appears that the mixed methods approach was a successful methodology in accomplishing the goals of this study. Participants' understandings of the factors that influence poverty and of the poverty situation were evaluated and their individual suggestions for improvement were taken into consideration. With a total of 59 participants, this study was weighted towards white students and students who claim to belong to the College of Liberal Arts. Overall comparisons of the pre and post experience surveys show that there was an increase in the means for the majority of the questions. In comparing all participants, the percent change in the mean ranged from a decrease of 4.14% to an increase of 22.22%. In addition, T-test analysis showed that the increase in means for the majority of the questions was not due to random chance. It should also be noted that for the questions that had differences that could not be considered statistically significant, the percentage change in means range from a decrease of 4.14% to an increase of 8.62%. The overall mean of responses to all 23 questions for the pre

[127] Tischauser, Leslie V. (2015).

experience survey was 3.4681 and 3.9246 for the post experience survey ($t(22) = -9.430$, $p < 0.00$). The overall percentage change in means was a 13.16% increase. This supports the conclusion that the CAPS was successful.

Unexpected results were consistently found for question 23, which fell into the "Perceptions of the Impoverished" category. This category was intended to measure the participant's attitudes toward the impoverished and the effects of poverty on the poor. This indicates that future simulations should work to better demonstrate the effects of poverty on the impoverished. For example, question number 23 addresses the psychological effect of poverty and the results show that there was not a statistically significant increase in the means for this question on the pre and post experience surveys. This aspect of the simulation can be improved upon by ensuring all involved remain serious throughout the experience. The division of the 23 comparison questions into three categories provided insight concerning the participants' levels of understanding both before and after the poverty simulation. The category "Perceptions of the Impoverished" revealed that within this category, the majority of the questions had a significant increase of means. Within this category, the mean increased and the standard deviation decreased for the majority of questions. Percent changes for these questions ranged from a 4.14% decrease to a 19.32% increase in mean values. Overall, these data support the claim that the poverty simulation was successful in educating participants concerning their perceptions of the impoverished.

For the category "Understanding the Conditions of Poverty," we saw an increase in the mean between the pre and post experience surveys and a decrease in the standard deviation. The percent change in the means showed an increase in the scores for every

question with a minimum increase of 7.98%. This shows that for this category, the poverty simulation was particularly effective. The difference in the means ranged from 0.0678-0.5932. Upon calculation of parametric statistics, the changes in mean were statistically significant for the majority of questions within this category.

Concerning the "Attributions of Poverty" category, an increase in means from the pre experience survey to the post experience survey shows an understanding of the conditions of poverty and those factors that attribute to the poverty situation. The majority of the pre and post experience surveys show that the increase in means for the questions were statistically significant. Upon calculation of percent change in means, it was found that all values were positive, indicating increasing means for all. The lowest percentage change in mean was an increase of 0.489%. While this category had a larger range of percentage change in mean than the "Understanding Conditions of Poverty" category, the data shows that there was a smaller change in means for this category. All in all, the most improvement in future simulations can be seen in the "Perceptions of the Impoverished" category.

Upon division of the participants based on demographics and other characteristics, it was found that those who did not have any direct experience with poverty learned more about the poverty situation than those who claimed to have direct experience with poverty. According to the data, for those with no direct experience with poverty, the pre experience survey an average of the means for each response was 3.36 and an average the means for each response of 3.80 for those who claim to have direct experience. Parametric calculations also showed a majority of the means for the 23 comparison statements to have had a significant difference between the pre and post

experience surveys. For those whose results were not deemed statistically significant, all except question 23 showed a percentage increase in the means ranging from 1.43% to 9.38%. As expected, for those respondents who indicated that they had previously had direct experience with poverty, fewer differences between pre and post survey response means were considered statistically significant. This indicates that a large portion of those with direct experience with poverty are not as likely to gain new perspectives from participation in the Community Action Poverty Simulation. This is consistent with the expected results.

Division of respondents by their demographic characteristics, gender, anticipated graduation date, age, and school of study revealed information about which groups experienced a greater change in understanding about poverty. In terms of gender, the majority of males and females showed a statistically significant increase in means and a decrease in standard deviation after the CAPS for the majority of respondents to the 23 statements that underwent Likert Scale analysis. Female respondents scored lower than male respondents on both the pre and post experience surveys, but both males ($t(22) = -9.429$, $p < 0.000$) and females ($t(22) = -7.482$, $p < 0.000$) showed a statistically significant change in means. Division of respondents based on their anticipated graduation date revealed that for those who have completed or are completing their fourth year of college and for those currently in their third year of college, the minority of responses to the Likert Scale questions did have an statistically significant increase in means. For the fourth year or beyond students, there was a range of percentage change in mean of -4.48% to 19.7%. The percentage change in mean for third year students ranged from -5% to 75%. Although this is true, an increase in means was observed for the

majority of responses post simulation from students who were either third year students or beyond. There were no statistically significant differences in means observed for the group of second year students. A statistically significant difference between each of these four groups both before and after participation was observed except for in the comparison between the first and second years of college. These data reveal that based on Likert Scale Analysis, the poverty simulation was more effective for students who had completed at least their second year of college. An age range of 18-35 for respondents resulted in grouping respondents into teenagers, early twenty year-olds, and those above typical college age. Overall, it appears that the poverty simulation was more successful for those in their early twenties. Statistical analysis showed that the majority of questions showed a statistically significant increase from the pre experience survey for those in their early twenties. The percentage change in means for this group ranged from -.86% to 25.87%.

Parametric statistics revealed that for those participants belonging to the College of Liberal Arts and to the School of Business Administration, a statistically significant change in means for the majority of questions occurred. The School of Business Administration data was unique in that a number of questions showed a 0% percentage change in means and there was a maximum percentage change in means of 81.82%. These data could be the result of the small sample size. Data regarding participants who belong to the School of Education were interesting in that it had the highest percentage change in means observed for all divisions. This indicates that those belonging to the School of Education could particularly benefit from the poverty simulation, but in order to gain more reliable data, the sample size for this group should be increased in future

CAPS. The post-graduate cohort had a majority of responses that were considered to be statistically significant. For those groups that contained participants whose responses showed a statistically significant increase in means, poverty simulations were particularly effective in achieving their goal of raising awareness of the poverty situation.

Qualitative findings were particularly intriguing. They revealed information about the challenges participants faced during the simulation, ideas participants had for improvement of the experience, participants' predictions concerning the effects of the poverty simulation on their future involvement in efforts to alleviate the poverty situation, and the participants' reasons for attendance. Challenges the participants commonly identified were harsh conditions, lack of information, lack of time, emotional strain, and resource management. In terms of improvement, suggested changes range from enacting no changes at all to making planning and logistical changes to the set-up of the simulation. Participants also identified increasing awareness, bettering education, making policy changes, and increasing community action as methods that they would expect to help change the current poverty situation. While the majority of respondents did express a desire to help with the poverty situation, a minority of respondents claimed to have no desire to help the poor, even after participation in the CAPS. This was an unexpected finding, but it is important to note that those who did not want to help did not feel that helping is their responsibility or that they have the means to help others. In terms of recruiting participants, participants cited three main reasons for attendance: a personal relationship with one of the facilitators, a desire to experience what the impoverished experience, or because they saw it as an enlightening experience that would benefit them in future career endeavors.

Final Conclusions

The inaugural Community Action Poverty Simulation at the University of Mississippi was successful in sensitizing participants to the realities of poverty by educating them and demonstrating the impact the experience has on daily life. The analysis of this CAPS contributes to existing literature by discussing the strengths of the implementation of the poverty simulation at a university campus. In addition, the results found here reveal that the poverty simulation was particularly effective for students beyond their sophomore year and in their early twenties. It is important to note that a simulation experience is another pedagogical tool to discuss poverty, but it in no way replicates the lived experience of those in poverty. This type of experiment is not transformational, but another way to teach content on poverty to increase students' awareness. Future simulations should aim to recruit adequate sample sizes for each of the schools of study in order to obtain more reliable data about the effect of the poverty simulation on the different groups. In addition to the quantitative data recorded during this study, qualitative responses encouraged future simulations and those changes that participants believe would enhance their experience for this particular group. A greater awareness, which will benefit society, of the poverty situation can be attained through Community Action Poverty Simulations.

CHAPTER 7

RECOMMENDATIONS

While the first Community Action Poverty Simulation at the University of Mississippi accomplished what it was designed to accomplish, there are a number of changes that may be implemented to enhance this experience. In addition, there are changes in analyzing the success of future poverty simulations that may be made to enhance analysis. Such changes have been described by facilitators and participants alike and are discussed below.

Improvements to the CAPS experience.

Areas for improvement include: a larger room for the simulation, better explanation of the rules, better prepared and trained facilitators in order to maintain a realistic and serious setting, and better debriefing techniques. The small size of the Union Ballroom increased the difficulty of accomplishing tasks because participants could not see all of the community resources that were available surrounding the parameter of the room. In addition, a number of participants complained that the facilitators did not know their role in the simulation and often did not take the simulation seriously, thus reducing the impact of the simulation. As described in the literature review, the debriefing post-experience plays a major role in helping participants realize and understand what they

experienced during the simulation. Results showed that participants found that the debriefing was not taken seriously and suggest that changes to the debriefing should be made. First of all, it is important that debriefing facilitators maintain a serious and focused attitude. Secondly, these facilitators should know that debriefing is part of the simulation and participants should not leave before the debriefing. A better understanding of the simulation is attained during debriefing and participants who do not participate in the entire debriefing session could dilute results.

Outreach to further audiences.

This experience proved to be impactful for the participants. Considering the simulations' success and the monetary investment made in purchasing the kit, future poverty simulations should occur and reach wider audiences in order to raise more awareness about poverty. At the University of Mississippi, the McLean Institute's cites the following core values:

> **"Academic Excellence:** The McLean Institute promotes community engagement opportunities that enrich classroom learning.
>
> **Transformation:** Through engaged scholarship and reflective community action, the McLean Institute promotes transformation through service by connecting university research, teaching, and service activity with community partners to serve communities across the state.

> **Respect:** The McLean Institute values the strengths and assets of all people and the organizations with whom we partner.
>
> **Integrity:** The McLean Institute believes in listening honestly, processing information accurately, and following through on its commitments.
>
> **Inclusion:** The McLean Institute fosters inclusivity and promotes cultural competence."

The Community Action Poverty Simulation is a tool that further enables the McLean institute to embody these core values. According to their website, "The McLean Institute for Public Service and Community Engagement advances transformative service throughout the University and fights poverty through education in Mississippi. Our community engagement work seeks to impact low-income families in our state because more than 1 in 5 Mississippians live in poverty, including nearly 1 in 3 children under the age of 18."[128]

A need for further research.

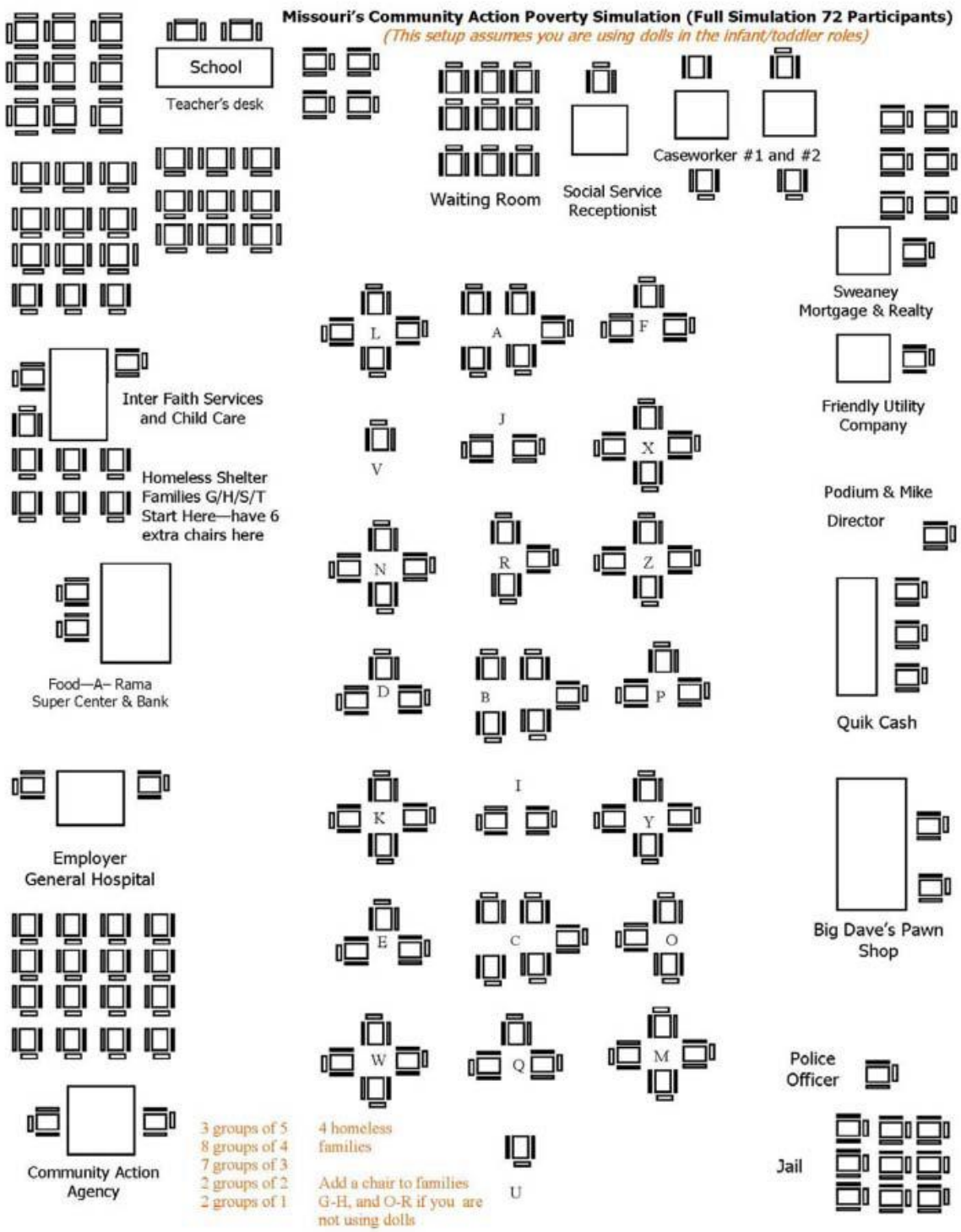
In future simulations, questions selected from previous surveys to analyze the perceptions of the participants should all be tested for reliability and validity. In addition, further studies should evaluate whether or not changes made to future simulations are effective. Analysis of long-term impact of the poverty simulation would also be beneficial in analyzing the success of the simulation. Follow-up surveys with participants

[128] "McLean Institute for Public Service and Community Engagement."

to determine whether or not they have volunteered or taken actions inspired by the poverty simulation would be beneficial in analysis of its success. In future studies, focus groups could be more effective in gaining a more contextual understanding of the impact the CAPS made on participants. Focus groups allow for integrative discussion of experiences and greater insight of what the experience was like for participants.

APPENDIX

Item 1. Setup of Community Action Poverty Simulation



Item 2. Pre Experience Survey

INFORMATION SHEET

Title: Community Action Poverty Simulation: Evaluating the Effectiveness

Investigator
Anna Grace Stout
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Advisor
Eric Weber, Ph.D.
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(662) 915-1336
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Description
The purpose of this research project is to evaluate the effectiveness of the *Community Action Poverty Simulation* as a teaching tool that will provide students with insight into the conditions of poverty. You will be asked to complete an anonymous online pre-experience survey and a post-experience survey after the poverty simulation.

Cost and Payments
The initial online survey will take about 10-15 minutes and the final survey will take about 10-15 minutes.

Risks and Benefits
There are no anticipated risks to you from participating in the study. You should not expect benefits from participating in this study. However, you might experience satisfaction from participating and participation may result in an increased knowledge of the poverty situation. In addition, you will have the opportunity to learn more about poverty and what you can do to help alleviate the problems associated with poverty.

Confidentiality
All information in the study will be collected from you anonymously: it will not be possible for anyone, even the researchers, to associate you with your responses.

Right to Withdraw
You do not have to volunteer for this study, and there is no penalty if you refuse. If you start the study and decide that you do not want to finish close your web browser. Whether or not you participate or withdraw will not affect your current or future relationship with the University, and it will not cause you to lose any benefits to which you are entitled.

IRB Approval
This study has been reviewed by The University of Mississippi's Institutional Review Board (IRB). If you have any questions, concerns, or reports regarding your rights as a participant of research, please contact the IRB at (662) 915-7482 or irb@olemiss.edu.

Statement of Consent
I have read and understand the above information. By completing the survey/interview I consent to participate in the study.

Pre-Simulation Survey

What role have you been assigned in the poverty simulation? _____

The following will ask you about your attitudes towards those living in poverty and your experiences with poverty. Please indicate the degree to which you either agree or disagree with the following statements on a 5-point scale, with:

1= strongly agree 5=strongly disagree

1.	Poor people are dishonest.	1 2 3 4 5
2.	People are poor due to circumstances beyond their control	1 2 3 4 5
3.	Poor people are different from the rest of society.	1 2 3 4 5
4.	Poor people generally have lower intelligence than non-poor people.	1 2 3 4 5
5.	The poor are treated the same as everyone else.	1 2 3 4 5
6.	The community provides effective and efficient services to help families with low income live.	1 2 3 4 5
7.	Some poor people live better than I do, considering all their benefits.	1 2 3 4 5
8.	There is a lot of fraud among welfare recipients.	1 2 3 4 5
9.	Society has the responsibility to help poor people	1 2 3 4 5
10.	Government has the responsibility to help poor people.	1 2 3 4 5
11.	Churches have the responsibility to help poor people.	1 2 3 4 5
12.	Individuals have the responsibility to help poor people.	1 2 3 4 5
13.	People with low income do not have to work as hard because of all of the services available to them.	1 2 3 4 5
14.	Poor people are satisfied receiving welfare.	1 2 3 4 5
15.	Most poor people are satisfied with their standard of living.	1 2 3 4 5
16.	People get enough money to survive from welfare, food stamps, and other social programs.	1 2 3 4 5
17.	Any person can get ahead in this country.	1 2 3 4 5
18.	If poor people worked harder, they could escape poverty.	1 2 3 4 5
19.	The private sector has no role in improving the situation for people with low income.	1 2 3 4 5
20.	The financial pressures faced by the people with low income are no different than the financial pressures faced by other Americans.	1 2 3 4 5
21.	I believe poor people create their own difficulties	1 2 3 4 5
22.	People with low income just need more budgeting skills.	1 2 3 4 5
23.	People with low income have low self-esteem.	1 2 3 4 5

24. In your opinion, which of the following best describes your family's economic status?
    a. wealthy
    b. upper class
    c. middle class
    d. working class
    e. poor

25. Which of the following describes your experience with people who live in poverty? Select all that apply.
    a. my family lives in poverty
    b. several of my friends live in poverty
    c. I have worked/volunteered with people who live in poverty
    d. I have learned about poverty in a classroom setting.
    e. I have little direct experience with poverty/most of what I know comes from books, movies, and television.
26. Have you or your family ever received any of the following supports (remember your responses are considered confidential and cannot in any way be traced back to you)?
    a. supplemental security income
    b. food stamps
    c. TANF (Temporary Assistance for Needy Families)
    d. Medicaid
    e. heating assistance
27. What is your age? _____
28. What is your gender? male female
29. What is your race/ethnicity?
    a. White
    b. black/African American
    c. American Indian or Alaskan Native
    d. Asian
    e. Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
    f. Hispanic/Latino
    g. Other
30. With which college or school are you affiliated? Check all that apply.
    a. College of Liberal Arts
    b. General Studies
    c. School of Accountancy
    d. School of Applied Sciences
    e. School of Business Administration
    f. School of Education
    g. School of Engineering
    h. School of Health Related Professions
    i. School of Journalism and New Media
    j. School of Law
    k. School of Pharmacy
    l. Graduate School
31. What is your anticipated graduation date? 2015 2016 2017 2018 2019 2020

<u>This is the pre-experience survey and anonymous responses were aquired via Qualtrics. The link to the online survey is:</u>
https://qtrial2015az1.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe3/form/SV_e3uMbFdG4w718Vf

Item 3. Post Experience Survey

INFORMATION SHEET

Title: Community Action Poverty Simulation: Evaluating the Effectiveness

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Risks and Benefits
There are no anticipated risks to you from participating in the study. You should not expect benefits from participating in this study. However, you might experience satisfaction from participating and participation may result in an increased knowledge of the poverty situation. In addition, you will have the opportunity to learn more about poverty and what you can do to help alleviate the problems associated with poverty.

Confidentiality
All information in the study will be collected from you anonymously: it will not be possible for anyone, even the researchers, to associate you with your responses.

Right to Withdraw
You do not have to volunteer for this study, and there is no penalty if you refuse. If you start the study and decide that you do not want to finish close your web browser. Whether or not you participate or withdraw will not affect your current or future relationship with the University, and it will not cause you to lose any benefits to which you are entitled.

IRB Approval
This study has been reviewed by The University of Mississippi's Institutional Review Board (IRB). If you have any questions, concerns, or reports regarding your rights as a participant of research, please contact the IRB at (662) 915-7482 or irb@olemiss.edu.

Statement of Consent
I have read and understand the above information. By completing the survey/interview I consent to participate in the study.

Post-Simulation Survey

What role have you been assigned in the poverty simulation? _____

The following will ask you about your attitudes towards those living in poverty and your experiences with poverty. Please indicate the degree to which you either agree or disagree with the following statements on a 5-point scale, with:

1= strongly agree 5=strongly disagree

1.	Poor people are dishonest.	1 2 3 4 5
2.	People are poor due to circumstances beyond their control	1 2 3 4 5
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20.	The financial pressures faced by the people with low income are no different than the financial pressures faced by other Americans.	1 2 3 4 5
21.	I believe poor people create their own difficulties	1 2 3 4 5
22.	People with low income just need more budgeting skills.	1 2 3 4 5
23.	People with low income have low self-esteem.	1 2 3 4 5

Free Response Questions

24. The things that I found to be the most challenging during the simulation were (ex: lack of resources such as transportation, education, etc.):

25. The changes I would suggest making to better the poverty simulation experience are:

26. What do you think can be done to address poverty and do you have a new desire (inspired by this experience) to be involved in efforts to address poverty?

27. Why did you attend today?

28. Additional Comments:

Item 4. Recruitment Materials

EMAIL SENT BY DR. ALBERT NYLANDER

The McLean Institute for Public Service and Community Engagement advances transformative service throughout the University and fights poverty through education in Mississippi. Our community engagement work seeks to impact low-income families in our state because more than 1 in 5 Mississippians live in poverty, including nearly 1 in 3 children under the age of 18. To help raise awareness and inspire UM students to take action, the McLean Institute will host our first Community Action Poverty Simulation on Tuesday, October 27, 2015, from 4-7 pm in the Student Union Ballroom.

The poverty simulation was developed by the Missouri Association for Community Action and has been used at the University of Mississippi Medical Center as a successful learning tool to help people understand the realities of poverty. It was brought to the McLean Institute by a UM student who was so impacted by participating in the experience as an intern at UMMC that she is writing her honors thesis about poverty simulations as a participatory learning tool. During the simulation, participants make decisions mirroring the day-to-day realities of low-income households representing TANF recipients, disabled individuals receiving government assistance, and senior citizens on Social Security. Participants must navigate the stresses of providing for basic necessities and shelter on a limited budget during the course of four 15-minute “weeks.” They also interact with volunteers portraying human service agents, grocers, pawnbrokers, bill collectors, job interviewers, police officers, and others in the community.

The Community Action Poverty Simulation invites participants to look at poverty from a variety of angles and then to recognize and discuss the potential for change within their local communities. The simulation was designed to raise awareness among those who frequently deal with low-income families, as well as to create a broader awareness of the realities of poverty among policymakers, community leaders, and others.

In order to maximize the full experience for participants, the McLean Institute is seeking support from the University and Oxford community. The goal is to raise $2,500 from local sponsors. As a sponsor, the entity’s name will be placed on all materials used to publicize the event and will be announced verbally at the event itself.

For more information or to become a sponsor, please contact Laura Martin at 662-915-2078 or at lemartin@olemiss.edu. Please consider assisting this endeavor to raise awareness and inspire action in our community.

Sincerely,

Albert

Albert Nylander, Ph.D.
Director, McLean Institute for Public Service and Community Engagement
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TODAY:
1 IN 5 MISSISSIPPIANS LIVES IN POVERTY
Nearly 1 in 3 children under 18 in Mississippi lives in poverty
43%
of working families in Mississippi are low-income
JOIN US TO RAISE AWARENESS AND TAKE ACTION
at the
Community Action Poverty Simulation
Tuesday, October 27
4pm-7pm
Student Union Ballroom
Registration required | Register at mclean.olemiss.edu/poverty-simulation
Hosted by the McLean Institute for Public Service and Community Engagement
Sponsored by the African-American Studies Program, Department of Social Work, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Division of Outreach and Continuing Education, Division of Student Affairs, Ole Miss Athletics, Sally McDonnell Barksdale Honors College, Sarah Isom Center for Women and Gender Studies, School of Applied Sciences, School of Education, and Student Disability Services.
THE UNIVERSITY of MISSISSIPPI
McLean Institute for Public Service and Community Engagement

Item 5. IRB Approval Email

irb@olemiss.edu <irb@olemiss.edu> 10/5/15

to me, Eric, wchen3

Ms. Stout:

This is to inform you that your application to conduct research with human participants, "Poverty Simulation " (Protocol #16x-082), has been approved as Exempt under 45 CFR 46.101(b)(#2).

Please remember that all of The University of Mississippi's human participant research activities, regardless of whether the research is subject to federal regulations, must be guided by the ethical principles in The Belmont Report: Ethical Principles and Guidelines for the Protection of Human Subjects of Research.

It is especially important for you to keep these points in mind:

- You must protect the rights and welfare of human research participants.
- Any changes to your approved protocol must be reviewed and approved before initiating those changes.
- You must report promptly to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated problems involving risks to participants or others.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact the IRB at irb@olemiss.edu.

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Item 6. Tables

Table 5.1 Pre Experience Survey Data

Statistics

	N Valid	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation	Range
q1pre	59	3.780	4.000	5.0	1.2740	4.0
q2pre	59	3.220	3.000	3.0	.9297	4.0
q3pre	59	3.322	3.000	3.0	1.1809	4.0
q4pre	59	3.203	3.000	3.0	1.1414	4.0
q5pre	59	3.763	4.000	5.0	1.4544	4.0
q6pre	59	3.424	3.000	4.0	1.1018	4.0
q7pre	59	3.627	4.000	5.0	1.2020	4.0
q8pre	59	3.56	4.00	5	1.303	4
q9pre	59	3.41	3.00	5	1.261	4
q10pre	59	3.64	4.00	5	1.399	4
q11pre	59	3.75	4.00	5	1.212	4
q12pre	59	3.017	3.000	3.0	1.2797	4.0
q13pre	59	3.661	4.000	4.0[a]	1.2403	4.0
q14pre	59	3.356	3.000	3.0	1.2143	4.0
q15pre	59	3.780	4.000	4.0	1.2186	4.0
q16pre	59	3.542	4.000	5.0	1.2222	4.0
q17pre	59	3.458	3.000	5.0	1.3303	4.0
q18pre	59	3.356	3.000	4.0	1.1259	4.0
q19pre	59	3.373	3.000	3.0	1.0651	4.0
q20pre	59	3.712	4.000	5.0	1.2464	4.0
q21pre	59	3.593	4.000	4.0	1.1465	4.0
q22pre	59	3.356	3.000	3.0	1.2698	4.0
q23pre	59	2.864	3.000	2.0	1.0579	4.0

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Table 5.2 Post Experience Survey Data

	N	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation	Range
q1post	59	4.305	4.000	5.0	.7713	2.0
q2post	59	3.814	4.000	4.0	1.1667	4.0
q3post	59	3.610	4.000	3.0	1.0989	4.0
q4post	59	3.695	4.000	4.0	1.0044	3.0
q5post	59	4.254	5.000	5.0	.9576	4.0
q6post	59	3.492	4.000	4.0	1.0401	4.0
q7post	59	4.186	5.000	5.0	1.1814	4.0
q8post	59	3.98	5.00	5	1.239	4
q9post	59	3.85	4.00	5	1.215	4
q10post	59	4.10	5.00	5	1.109	4
q11post	59	4.08	5.00	5	1.103	3
q12post	59	3.424	3.000	3.0	1.1018	4.0
q13post	59	4.475	5.000	5.0	.9533	4.0
q14post	59	4.220	5.000	5.0	1.0516	4.0
q15post	59	4.475	5.000	5.0	.8378	3.0
q16post	59	4.136	5.000	5.0	1.1365	4.0
q17post	59	3.475	4.000	3.0[a]	1.4664	8.0
q18post	59	3.864	4.000	5.0	1.1365	4.0
q19post	59	3.915	4.000	4.0	.9700	4.0
q20post	59	4.051	4.000	5.0	1.1207	4.0
q21post	59	4.186	5.000	5.0	1.0903	4.0
q22post	59	3.932	4.000	4.0	1.1275	4.0
q23post	59	2.746	3.000	2.0	1.1685	4.0

Table 5.3 Parametric Statistics Survey Data

Paired Samples Test						
		Difference in means	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Percent Change in Means (%)
Pair 1	q1pre - q1post	.5254	-3.158	58	.003	5.900
Pair 2	q2pre - q2post	.5932	-3.064	58	.003	18.420
Pair 3	q3pre - q3post	.2881	-1.592	58	.117	8.670
Pair 4	q4pre - q4post	.4915	-2.684	58	.009	15.340
Pair 5	q5pre - q5post	.4915	-2.163	58	.035	13.060
Pair 6	q6pre - q6post	.0678	-.423	58	.674	7.980
Pair 7	q7pre - q7post	.5593	-2.760	58	.008	15.420
Pair 8	q8pre - q8post	.424	-2.205	58	.031	11.910
Pair 9	q9pre - q9post	.441	-2.452	58	.017	12.930
Pair 10	q10pre - q10post	.458	-2.398	58	.020	12.580
Pair 11	q11pre - q11post	.339	-1.801	58	.077	9.040
Pair 12	q12pre - q12post	.4068	-2.039	58	.046	13.480
Pair 13	q13pre - q13post	.8136	-4.037	58	.000	22.220
Pair 14	q14pre - q14post	.8644	-4.144	58	.000	19.320
Pair 15	q15pre - q15post	.6949	-3.558	58	.001	18.380
Pair 16	q16pre - q16post	.5932	-2.930	58	.005	16.750
Pair 17	q17pre - q17post	.0169	-.087	58	.931	.489
Pair 18	q18pre - q18post	.5085	-2.934	58	.005	15.150
Pair 19	q19pre - q19post	.5424	-3.723	58	.000	16.080
Pair 20	q20pre - q20post	.3390	-1.758	58	.084	9.130
Pair 21	q21pre - q21post	.5932	-3.191	58	.002	16.510
Pair 22	q22pre - q22post	.5763	-3.180	58	.002	17.170
Pair 23	q23pre - q23post	-.1186	.674	58	.503	-4.140

Table 5.4 Perceptions of the Impoverished

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Difference in mean	Std. Deviation			
Pair 1	q1pre - q1post	.5254	1.2779	-3.158	58	.003
Pair 2	q3pre - q3post	.2881	1.3902	-1.592	58	.117
Pair 3	q4pre - q4post	.4915	1.4065	-2.684	58	.009
Pair 4	q7pre - q7post	.5593	1.5566	-2.760	58	.008
Pair 5	q12pre - q12post	.4068	1.5326	-2.039	58	.046
Pair 6	q14pre - q14post	.8644	1.6023	-4.144	58	.000
Pair 7	q15pre - q15post	.6949	1.5000	-3.558	58	.001
Pair 8	q22pre - q22post	.5763	1.3921	-3.180	58	.002
Pair 9	q23pre - q23post	-.1186	1.3530	.674	58	.503

Table 5.5 Understanding of the Conditions of Poverty

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Difference in mean	Std. Deviation			
Pair 1	q5pre - q5post	.4915	1.7457	-2.163	58	.035
Pair 2	q6pre - q6post	.0678	1.2299	-.423	58	.674
Pair 3	q8pre - q8post	.424	1.476	-2.205	58	.031
Pair 4	q9pre - q9post	.441	1.381	-2.452	58	.017
Pair 5	q10pre - q10post	.458	1.466	-2.398	58	.020
Pair 6	q11pre - q11post	.339	1.446	-1.801	58	.077
Pair 7	q16pre - q16post	.5932	1.5550	-2.930	58	.005
Pair 8	q19pre - q19post	.5424	1.1191	-3.723	58	.000

Table 5.6 Descriptive Statistics: Attributions of Poverty

Statistics

	N	Mean	Median	Mode	Deviation	Variance	Range
	Valid						
q2pre	59	3.220	3.000	3.0	.9297	.864	4.0
q2post	59	3.814	4.000	4.0	1.1667	1.361	4.0
q4post	59	3.695	4.000	4.0	1.0044	1.009	3.0
q13pre	59	3.661	4.000	4.0	1.2403	1.538	4.0
q13post	59	4.475	5.000	5.0	.9533	.909	4.0
q17pre	59	3.458	3.000	5.0	1.3303	1.770	4.0
q17post	59	3.475	4.000	3.0	1.4664	2.150	8.0
q18pre	59	3.356	3.000	4.0	1.1259	1.268	4.0
q18post	59	3.864	4.000	5.0	1.1365	1.292	4.0
q20pre	59	3.712	4.000	5.0	1.2464	1.553	4.0
q20post	59	4.051	4.000	5.0	1.1207	1.256	4.0
q21pre	59	3.593	4.000	4.0	1.1465	1.314	4.0
q21post	59	4.186	5.000	5.0	1.0903	1.189	4.0

Table 5.7 Parametric Statistics: Attributions of Poverty

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation			
Pair 1	q2pre - q2post	.5932	1.4869	-3.064	58	.003
Pair 2	q13pre - q13post	.8136	1.5478	-4.037	58	.000
Pair 3	q17pre - q17post	.0169	1.4913	-.087	58	.931
Pair 4	q18pre - q18post	.5085	1.3310	-2.934	58	.005
Pair 5	q20pre - q20post	.3390	1.4810	-1.758	58	.084
Pair 6	q21pre - q21post	.5932	1.4278	-3.191	58	.002

Table 5.8 Parametric Statistics: Experience with Poverty

Paired Samples Test[a]

direct experience with poverty			Paired Differences: Differneces in mean	Paired Differences: Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)		Paired Differences: Differneces in mean	Paired Differences: Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
no direct experience	Pair 1	q1pre - q1post	.4318	1.2831	-2.232	43	.031	direct experience	.8000	1.2649	-2.449	14	.028
	Pair 2	q2pre - q2post	.7045	1.4560	-3.210	43	.003		.2667	1.5796	-.654	14	.524
	Pair 3	q3pre - q3post	.2500	1.3490	-1.229	43	.226		.4000	1.5492	-1.000	14	.334
	Pair 4	q4pre - q4post	.6136	1.4661	-2.776	43	.008		.1333	1.1872	-.435	14	.670
	Pair 5	q5pre - q5post	.4545	1.7973	-1.678	43	.101		.6000	1.6388	-1.418	14	.178
	Pair 6	q6pre - q6post	.2500	1.2782	-1.297	43	.201		-.4667	.9155	1.974	14	.068
	Pair 7	q7pre - q7post	.7273	1.5606	-3.091	43	.003		.0667	1.4864	-.174	14	.865
	Pair 8	q8pre - q8post	.250	1.449	-1.145	43	.259		.933	1.486	-2.432	14	.029
	Pair 9	q9pre - q9post	.318	1.394	-1.514	43	.137		.800	1.320	-2.347	14	.034
	Pair 10	q10pre -	.341	1.478	-1.530	43	.133		.800	1.424	-2.175	14	.047
	Pair 11	q11pre - q11post	.205	1.440	-.942	43	.351		.733	1.438	-1.976	14	.068
	Pair 12	q12pre - q12post	.7273	1.4037	-3.437	43	.001		-.5333	1.5523	1.331	14	.205
	Pair 13	q13pre - q13post	.8636	1.6367	-3.500	43	.001		.6667	1.2910	-2.000	14	.065
	Pair 14	q14pre - q14post	.9318	1.7836	-3.465	43	.001		.6667	.8997	-2.870	14	.012
	Pair 15	q15pre - q15post	.7955	1.5489	-3.407	43	.001		.4000	1.3522	-1.146	14	.271
	Pair 16	q16pre - q16post	.8864	1.6026	-3.669	43	.001		-.2667	1.0328	1.000	14	.334
	Pair 17	q17pre - q17post	.0455	1.4778	-.204	43	.839		-.0667	1.5796	.163	14	.872
	Pair 18	q18pre - q18post	.6136	1.4502	-2.807	43	.007		.2000	.8619	-.899	14	.384
	Pair 19	q19pre - q19post	.5227	1.0452	-3.317	43	.002		.6000	1.3522	-1.718	14	.108
	Pair 20	q20pre - q20post	.3182	1.6250	-1.299	43	.201		.4000	.9856	-1.572	14	.138
	Pair 21	q21pre - q21post	.7045	1.4719	-3.175	43	.003		.2667	1.2799	-.807	14	.433
	Pair 22	q22pre - q22post	.5682	1.4207	-2.653	43	.011		.6000	1.3522	-1.718	14	.108
	Pair 23	q23pre - q23post	-.0682	1.3537	.334	43	.740		-.2667	1.3870	.745	14	.469

Table 5.9 Parametric Statistics: Gender

Paired Samples Test[a]

Gender (q28pre)			Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)		Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Differences in Mean	Std. Deviation					Differences in Mean	Std. Deviation			
male	Pair 1	q1pre - q1post	-.5000	.9129	-2.569	21	.018	female	-.5405	1.4643	-2.245	36	.031
	Pair 2	q2pre - q2post	-.2727	1.6954	-.755	21	.459		-.7838	1.3361	-3.568	36	.001
	Pair 3	q3pre - q3post	-.3636	1.3290	-1.283	21	.213		-.2432	1.4416	-1.026	36	.312
	Pair 4	q4pre - q4post	-.7273	1.6090	-2.120	21	.046		-.3514	1.2740	-1.678	36	.102
	Pair 5	q5pre - q5post	-.7273	1.6090	-2.120	21	.046		-.3514	1.8290	-1.168	36	.250
	Pair 6	q6pre - q6post	.0455	1.1329	.188	21	.853		-.1351	1.2945	-.635	36	.529
	Pair 7	q7pre - q7post	-.3636	1.4653	-1.164	21	.257		-.6757	1.6168	-2.542	36	.015
	Pair 8	q8pre - q8post	-.409	1.221	-1.571	21	.131		-.432	1.625	-1.619	36	.114
	Pair 9	q9pre - q9post	-.545	1.101	-2.324	21	.030		-.378	1.534	-1.500	36	.142
	Pair 10	q10pre - q10post	-.636	1.364	-2.188	21	.040		-.351	1.531	-1.396	36	.171
	Pair 11	q11pre - q11post	-.409	1.501	-1.278	21	.215		-.297	1.431	-1.264	36	.214
	Pair 12	q12pre - q12post	-.2727	1.4203	-.901	21	.378		-.4865	1.6094	-1.839	36	.074
	Pair 13	q13pre - q13post	-.7273	1.2025	-2.837	21	.010		-.8649	1.7346	-3.033	36	.004
	Pair 14	q14pre - q14post	-.8182	1.5004	-2.558	21	.018		-.8919	1.6797	-3.230	36	.003
	Pair 15	q15pre - q15post	-.6364	1.2168	-2.453	21	.023		-.7297	1.6608	-2.673	36	.011
	Pair 16	q16pre - q16post	-1.0000	1.3093	-3.582	21	.002		-.3514	1.6536	-1.292	36	.204
	Pair 17	q17pre - q17post	-.3182	1.3934	-1.071	21	.296		.1622	1.5368	.642	36	.525
	Pair 18	q18pre - q18post	-.7727	1.2699	-2.854	21	.009		-.3514	1.3584	-1.573	36	.124
	Pair 19	q19pre - q19post	-.5000	1.1443	-2.049	21	.053		-.5676	1.1190	-3.085	36	.004
	Pair 20	q20pre - q20post	-.4545	1.1434	-1.865	21	.076		-.2703	1.6608	-.990	36	.329
	Pair 21	q21pre - q21post	-.5455	1.0108	-2.531	21	.019		-.6216	1.6390	-2.307	36	.027
	Pair 22	q22pre - q22post	-.6818	1.1705	-2.732	21	.012		-.5135	1.5206	-2.054	36	.047
	Pair 23	q23pre - q23post	.0455	1.2141	.176	21	.862		.1622	1.4436	.683	36	.499

Table 5.10 Descriptive Statistics: Age

Paired Samples Statistics

q27pre			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
18.0	Pair 1	q1pre	3.800	15	1.2071	.3117
		q1post	4.067	15	.7037	.1817
	Pair 2	q2pre	3.133	15	.7432	.1919
		q2post	3.667	15	1.1751	.3034
	Pair 3	q3pre	3.667	15	1.1751	.3034
		q3post	3.600	15	1.1832	.3055
	Pair 4	q4pre	3.467	15	1.1872	.3065
		q4post	3.800	15	1.0142	.2619
	Pair 5	q5pre	3.800	15	1.2649	.3266
		q5post	4.533	15	.6399	.1652
	Pair 6	q6pre	3.467	15	1.0601	.2737
		q6post	3.467	15	.9155	.2364
	Pair 7	q7pre	3.600	15	1.1212	.2895
		q7post	4.000	15	1.2536	.3237
	Pair 8	q8pre	3.40	15	1.183	.306
		q8post	3.60	15	1.298	.335
	Pair 9	q9pre	3.20	15	1.014	.262
		q9post	3.67	15	1.175	.303
	Pair 10	q10pre	3.73	15	1.335	.345
		q10post	3.80	15	1.146	.296
	Pair 11	q11pre	3.67	15	1.291	.333
		q11post	3.53	15	1.060	.274
	Pair 12	q12pre	2.933	15	1.0328	.2667
		q12post	3.200	15	1.0823	.2795
	Pair 13	q13pre	3.533	15	.9904	.2557
		q13post	4.533	15	.8338	.2153
	Pair 14	q14pre	3.133	15	1.3558	.3501
		q14post	4.067	15	1.2228	.3157
	Pair 15	q15pre	3.867	15	1.0601	.2737
		q15post	4.400	15	.8281	.2138
	Pair 16	q16pre	3.400	15	1.1212	.2895
		q16post	4.067	15	1.0998	.2840
	Pair 17	q17pre	3.600	15	1.1212	.2895
		q17post	3.333	15	1.3973	.3608
	Pair 18	q18pre	3.533	15	.9904	.2557
		q18post	3.800	15	1.3732	.3546
	Pair 19	q19pre	3.400	15	.8281	.2138
		q19post	3.600	15	.8281	.2138
	Pair 20	q20pre	3.733	15	1.3345	.3446
		q20post	3.933	15	.9612	.2482
	Pair 21	q21pre	3.667	15	.9759	.2520
		q21post	3.867	15	.9904	.2557
	Pair 22	q22pre	3.400	15	.9856	.2545
		q22post	3.733	15	.7988	.2063
	Pair 23	q23pre	2.933	15	1.0328	.2667
		q23post	2.600	15	.9103	.2350

q27pre			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
20.0	Pair 1	q1pre	3.738	42	1.3263	.2046
		q1post	4.357	42	.7908	.1220
	Pair 2	q2pre	3.238	42	1.0075	.1555
		q2post	3.881	42	1.1519	.1777
	Pair 3	q3pre	3.167	42	1.1670	.1801
		q3post	3.643	42	1.1004	.1698
	Pair 4	q4pre	3.143	42	1.1385	.1757
		q4post	3.667	42	1.0281	.1586
	Pair 5	q5pre	3.714	42	1.5505	.2393
		q5post	4.167	42	1.0340	.1595
	Pair 6	q6pre	3.381	42	1.1252	.1736
		q6post	3.476	42	1.0874	.1678
	Pair 7	q7pre	3.714	42	1.1952	.1844
		q7post	4.333	42	1.0745	.1658
	Pair 8	q8pre	3.60	42	1.363	.210
		q8post	4.12	42	1.214	.187
	Pair 9	q9pre	3.45	42	1.347	.208
		q9post	3.90	42	1.246	.192
	Pair 10	q10pre	3.60	42	1.449	.224
		q10post	4.21	42	1.094	.169
	Pair 11	q11pre	3.76	42	1.206	.186
		q11post	4.29	42	1.066	.164
	Pair 12	q12pre	3.000	42	1.3615	.2101
		q12post	3.571	42	1.0625	.1639
	Pair 13	q13pre	3.643	42	1.3219	.2040
		q13post	4.429	42	1.0156	.1567
	Pair 14	q14pre	3.405	42	1.1699	.1805
		q14post	4.286	42	.9948	.1535
	Pair 15	q15pre	3.714	42	1.2932	.1996
		q15post	4.524	42	.8334	.1286
	Pair 16	q16pre	3.571	42	1.2905	.1991
		q16post	4.214	42	1.0715	.1653
	Pair 17	q17pre	3.381	42	1.4134	.2181
		q17post	3.476	42	1.5180	.2342
	Pair 18	q18pre	3.286	42	1.1537	.1780
		q18post	3.881	42	1.0639	.1642
	Pair 19	q19pre	3.333	42	1.1405	.1760
		q19post	3.976	42	.9997	.1543
	Pair 20	q20pre	3.690	42	1.2589	.1942
		q20post	4.071	42	1.1974	.1848
	Pair 21	q21pre	3.500	42	1.1945	.1843
		q21post	4.262	42	1.1275	.1740
	Pair 22	q22pre	3.357	42	1.3761	.2123
		q22post	4.071	42	1.1560	.1784
	Pair 23	q23pre	2.762	42	1.0314	.1592
		q23post	2.738	42	1.2309	.1899

q27pre			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
30.0	Pair 1	q1pre	4.500	2	.7071	.5000
		q1post	5.000	2	0.0000	0.0000
	Pair 2	q2pre	3.500	2	.7071	.5000
		q2post	3.500	2	2.1213	1.5000
	Pair 3	q3pre	4.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q3post	3.000	2	0.0000	0.0000
	Pair 4	q4pre	2.500	2	.7071	.5000
		q4post	3.500	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 5	q5pre	4.500	2	.7071	.5000
		q5post	4.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
	Pair 6	q6pre	4.000[a]	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q6post	4.000[a]	2	1.4142	1.0000
	Pair 7	q7pre	2.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q7post	2.500	2	2.1213	1.5000
	Pair 8	q8pre	4.00[a]	2	1.414	1.000
		q8post	4.00[a]	2	1.414	1.000
	Pair 9	q9pre	4.00[a]	2	1.414	1.000
		q9post	4.00[a]	2	1.414	1.000
	Pair 10	q10pre	4.00[a]	2	1.414	1.000
		q10post	4.00[a]	2	1.414	1.000
	Pair 11	q11pre	4.00[a]	2	1.414	1.000
		q11post	4.00[a]	2	1.414	1.000
	Pair 12	q12pre	4.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q12post	2.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
	Pair 13	q13pre	5.000[a]	2	0.0000	0.0000
		q13post	5.000[a]	2	0.0000	0.0000
	Pair 14	q14pre	4.000[a]	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q14post	4.000[a]	2	1.4142	1.0000
	Pair 15	q15pre	4.500	2	.7071	.5000
		q15post	4.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
	Pair 16	q16pre	4.000	2	0.0000	0.0000
		q16post	3.000	2	2.8284	2.0000
	Pair 17	q17pre	4.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q17post	4.500	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 18	q18pre	3.500	2	2.1213	1.5000
		q18post	4.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
	Pair 19	q19pre	4.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q19post	5.000	2	0.0000	0.0000
	Pair 20	q20pre	4.000	2	0.0000	0.0000
		q20post	4.500	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 21	q21pre	5.000[a]	2	0.0000	0.0000
		q21post	5.000[a]	2	0.0000	0.0000
	Pair 22	q22pre	3.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q22post	2.500	2	2.1213	1.5000
	Pair 23	q23pre	4.500	2	.7071	.5000
		q23post	4.000	2	1.4142	1.0000

Table 5.11 Parametric Statistics: Anticipated Graduation Year

Paired Samples Test[a]

Graduation Year (q31pre)			Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Differences in Mean	Std. Deviation			
Year 4	Pair 1	q1pre - q1post	.6364	.9535	-3.130	21	.005
	Pair 2	q2pre - q2post	.4545	1.3707	-1.555	21	.135
	Pair 3	q3pre - q3post	.6364	.9535	-3.130	21	.005
	Pair 4	q4pre - q4post	.2273	1.1098	-.961	21	.348
	Pair 5	q5pre - q5post	.1818	1.5004	-.568	21	.576
	Pair 6	q6pre - q6post	0.0000	1.0235	0.000	21	1.000
	Pair 7	q7pre - q7post	.5455	1.2622	-2.027	21	.056
	Pair 8	q8pre - q8post	.545	1.101	-2.324	21	.030
	Pair 9	q9pre - q9post	.318	1.393	-1.071	21	.296
	Pair 10	q10pre - q10post	.455	1.224	-1.742	21	.096
	Pair 11	q11pre - q11post	.273	1.386	-.923	21	.367
	Pair 12	q12pre - q12post	.5909	1.1406	-2.430	21	.024
	Pair 13	q13pre - q13post	.6364	1.2168	-2.453	21	.023
	Pair 14	q14pre - q14post	.5000	1.1019	-2.128	21	.045
	Pair 15	q15pre - q15post	.5909	1.2968	-2.137	21	.045
	Pair 16	q16pre - q16post	.5909	1.1816	-2.346	21	.029
	Pair 17	q17pre - q17post	-.0909	1.4111	.302	21	.765
	Pair 18	q18pre - q18post	.4091	1.0538	-1.821	21	.083
	Pair 19	q19pre - q19post	.5909	1.3331	-2.079	21	.050
	Pair 20	q20pre - q20post	.2727	1.3159	-.972	21	.342
	Pair 21	q21pre - q21post	.6364	1.0486	-2.846	21	.010
	Pair 22	q22pre - q22post	.2273	1.3068	-.816	21	.424
	Pair 23	q23pre - q23post	-.1364	1.6123	.397	21	.696

Graduation Year (q31pre)			Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Differences in Mean	Std. Deviation			
Year 3	Pair 1	q1pre - q1post	.8750	1.6683	-2.098	15	.053
	Pair 2	q2pre - q2post	.8125	1.8697	-1.738	15	.103
	Pair 3	q3pre - q3post	.5625	1.7877	-1.259	15	.227
	Pair 4	q4pre - q4post	1.1250	1.4083	-3.195	15	.006
	Pair 5	q5pre - q5post	1.1250	2.1564	-2.087	15	.054
	Pair 6	q6pre - q6post	.3750	1.6683	-.899	15	.383
	Pair 7	q7pre - q7post	.8750	1.8212	-1.922	15	.074
	Pair 8	q8pre - q8post	.750	1.770	-1.695	15	.111
	Pair 9	q9pre - q9post	.750	1.612	-1.861	15	.083
	Pair 10	q10pre - q10post	1.000	1.549	-2.582	15	.021
	Pair 11	q11pre - q11post	1.063	1.436	-2.959	15	.010
	Pair 12	q12pre - q12post	.3125	1.6621	-.752	15	.464
	Pair 13	q13pre - q13post	1.3750	1.9621	-2.803	15	.013
	Pair 14	q14pre - q14post	1.6250	1.6279	-3.993	15	.001
	Pair 15	q15pre - q15post	1.3750	1.6279	-3.379	15	.004
	Pair 16	q16pre - q16post	1.1250	1.5438	-2.915	15	.011
	Pair 17	q17pre - q17post	.4375	1.4127	-1.239	15	.234
	Pair 18	q18pre - q18post	1.0625	1.4361	-2.959	15	.010
	Pair 19	q19pre - q19post	.8750	1.1475	-3.050	15	.008
	Pair 20	q20pre - q20post	.7500	1.7321	-1.732	15	.104
	Pair 21	q21pre - q21post	1.5000	1.5492	-3.873	15	.002
	Pair 22	q22pre - q22post	1.7500	1.3904	-5.034	15	.000
	Pair 23	q23pre - q23post	-.1250	1.1475	.436	15	.669

Graduation Year (q31pre)			Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Differences in Mean	Std. Deviation			
Year 2	Pair 1	q1pre - q1post	.0833	1.1645	-.248	11	.809
	Pair 2	q2pre - q2post	.5000	1.6237	-1.067	11	.309
	Pair 3	q3pre - q3post	-.5833	1.5643	1.292	11	.223
	Pair 4	q4pre - q4post	.5833	2.0207	-1.000	11	.339
	Pair 5	q5pre - q5post	.6667	1.9228	-1.201	11	.255
	Pair 6	q6pre - q6post	.1667	.9374	-.616	11	.551
	Pair 7	q7pre - q7post	-.0833	1.9287	.150	11	.884
	Pair 8	q8pre - q8post	.167	1.528	-.378	11	.713
	Pair 9	q9pre - q9post	.500	1.243	-1.393	11	.191
	Pair 10	q10pre - q10post	.500	1.624	-1.067	11	.309
	Pair 11	q11pre - q11post	.083	1.564	-.185	11	.857
	Pair 12	q12pre - q12post	.1667	2.2896	-.252	11	.806
	Pair 13	q13pre - q13post	.3333	1.8749	-.616	11	.551
	Pair 14	q14pre - q14post	.3333	2.2697	-.509	11	.621
	Pair 15	q15pre - q15post	.3333	1.9695	-.586	11	.570
	Pair 16	q16pre - q16post	.1667	2.3290	-.248	11	.809
	Pair 17	q17pre - q17post	-.3333	1.9228	.601	11	.560
	Pair 18	q18pre - q18post	0.0000	1.5954	0.000	11	1.000
	Pair 19	q19pre - q19post	.0833	.9003	-.321	11	.754
	Pair 20	q20pre - q20post	.3333	1.5570	-.742	11	.474
	Pair 21	q21pre - q21post	-.5000	1.5076	1.149	11	.275
	Pair 22	q22pre - q22post	-.0833	1.0836	.266	11	.795
	Pair 23	q23pre - q23post	-.2500	1.6026	.540	11	.600

Graduation Year (q31pre)			Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Differences in Mean	Std. Deviation			
Year 1	Pair 1	q1pre - q1post	.5000	1.5166	-.808	5	.456
	Pair 2	q2pre - q2post	.6667	.8165	-2.000	5	.102
	Pair 3	q3pre - q3post	.1667	.7528	-.542	5	.611
	Pair 4	q4pre - q4post	0.0000	.6325	0.000	5	1.000
	Pair 5	q5pre - q5post	-.1667	1.1690	.349	5	.741
	Pair 6	q6pre - q6post	-.5000	1.0488	1.168	5	.296
	Pair 7	q7pre - q7post	1.1667	1.1690	-2.445	5	.058
	Pair 8	q8pre - q8post	-.167	2.137	.191	5	.856
	Pair 9	q9pre - q9post	0.000	1.414	0.000	5	1.000
	Pair 10	q10pre - q10post	-.833	1.602	1.274	5	.259
	Pair 11	q11pre - q11post	-.667	1.211	1.348	5	.235
	Pair 12	q12pre - q12post	.5000	1.2247	-1.000	5	.363
	Pair 13	q13pre - q13post	1.1667	.4082	-7.000	5	.001
	Pair 14	q14pre - q14post	1.3333	1.2111	-2.697	5	.043
	Pair 15	q15pre - q15post	.3333	.5164	-1.581	5	.175
	Pair 16	q16pre - q16post	.3333	1.2111	-.674	5	.530
	Pair 17	q17pre - q17post	-.5000	1.0488	1.168	5	.296
	Pair 18	q18pre - q18post	.3333	1.5055	-.542	5	.611
	Pair 19	q19pre - q19post	.5000	.5477	-2.236	5	.076
	Pair 20	q20pre - q20post	-.1667	1.6021	.255	5	.809
	Pair 21	q21pre - q21post	.5000	1.0488	-1.168	5	.296
	Pair 22	q22pre - q22post	.3333	.8165	-1.000	5	.363
	Pair 23	q23pre - q23post	.1667	.7528	-.542	5	.611

Graduation Year (q31pre)			Paired Differences		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Differences in Mean	Std. Deviation			
Graduate Students	Pair 3	q3pre - q3post	.5000	.7071	-1.000	1	.500
	Pair 4	q4pre - q4post	-.5000	.7071	1.000	1	.500
	Pair 6	q6pre - q6post	-1.0000	1.4142	1.000	1	.500
	Pair 14	q14pre - q14post	1.0000	1.4142	-1.000	1	.500
	Pair 17	q17pre - q17post	.5000	.7071	-1.000	1	.500
	Pair 18	q18pre - q18post	.5000	.7071	-1.000	1	.500

a. No statistics are computed for one or more split files.

Table 5.12 Parametric Statistics: School of Study

Paired Samples Statistics

q30pre			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
College of Liberal Arts	Pair 1	q1pre	3.694	36	1.2833	.2139
		q1post	4.222	36	.8319	.1387
	Pair 2	q2pre	3.194	36	.9804	.1634
		q2post	3.639	36	1.2684	.2114
	Pair 3	q3pre	3.250	36	1.1307	.1885
		q3post	3.667	36	1.0420	.1737
	Pair 4	q4pre	3.194	36	1.1419	.1903
		q4post	3.778	36	1.0450	.1742
	Pair 5	q5pre	3.556	36	1.5756	.2626
		q5post	4.222	36	1.0983	.1831
	Pair 6	q6pre	3.389	36	1.2254	.2042
		q6post	3.500	36	1.1339	.1890
	Pair 7	q7pre	3.611	36	1.2485	.2081
		q7post	4.028	36	1.2980	.2163
	Pair 8	q8pre	3.39	36	1.379	.230
		q8post	3.97	36	1.298	.216
	Pair 9	q9pre	3.33	36	1.287	.215
		q9post	3.92	36	1.228	.205
	Pair 10	q10pre	3.53	36	1.483	.247
		q10post	4.03	36	1.134	.189
	Pair 11	q11pre	3.61	36	1.248	.208
		q11post	4.08	36	1.131	.188
	Pair 12	q12pre	3.028	36	1.2758	.2126
		q12post	3.556	36	1.1819	.1970
	Pair 13	q13pre	3.611	36	1.2935	.2156
		q13post	4.361	36	1.1251	.1875
	Pair 14	q14pre	3.250	36	1.1557	.1926
		q14post	4.167	36	1.1084	.1847
	Pair 15	q15pre	3.667	36	1.3093	.2182
		q15post	4.472	36	.9706	.1618
	Pair 16	q16pre	3.444	36	1.2058	.2010
		q16post	4.028	36	1.2302	.2050
	Pair 17	q17pre	3.500	36	1.3836	.2306
		q17post	3.389	36	1.5906	.2651
	Pair 18	q18pre	3.306	36	1.1419	.1903
		q18post	3.833	36	1.1339	.1890
	Pair 19	q19pre	3.222	36	1.1738	.1956
		q19post	3.861	36	1.0185	.1697
	Pair 20	q20pre	3.667	36	1.3093	.2182
		q20post	3.944	36	1.3081	.2180
	Pair 21	q21pre	3.528	36	1.2068	.2011
		q21post	4.222	36	1.0983	.1831
	Pair 22	q22pre	3.222	36	1.3546	.2258
		q22post	3.861	36	1.1989	.1998
	Pair 23	q23pre	2.583	36	1.0522	.1754
		q23post	2.583	36	1.2042	.2007

Paired Samples Statistics

q30pre			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Science-based curriculum	Pair 1	q1pre	4.083	12	.9962	.2876
		q1post	4.083	12	.7930	.2289
	Pair 2	q2pre	2.917	12	.5149	.1486
		q2post	4.000	12	1.0445	.3015
	Pair 3	q3pre	3.000	12	1.2060	.3482
		q3post	3.333	12	1.5570	.4495
	Pair 4	q4pre	3.000	12	.9535	.2752
		q4post	3.500	12	1.0000	.2887
	Pair 5	q5pre	4.250	12	1.2154	.3509
		q5post	4.333	12	.4924	.1421
	Pair 6	q6pre	3.083	12	.9003	.2599
		q6post	3.083	12	.9962	.2876
	Pair 7	q7pre	3.750	12	1.0553	.3046
		q7post	4.500	12	.9045	.2611
	Pair 8	q8pre	3.92	12	.900	.260
		q8post	3.58	12	1.240	.358
	Pair 9	q9pre	3.67	12	.888	.256
		q9post	3.75	12	1.138	.329
	Pair 10	q10pre	4.08	12	.900	.260
		q10post	3.67	12	1.231	.355
	Pair 11	q11pre	3.75	12	.965	.279
		q11post	3.67	12	1.155	.333
	Pair 12	q12pre	2.583	12	1.1645	.3362
		q12post	3.083	12	.5149	.1486
	Pair 13	q13pre	3.667	12	.8876	.2562
		q13post	4.583	12	.9003	.2599
	Pair 14	q14pre	3.000	12	1.4771	.4264
		q14post	4.333	12	.7785	.2247
	Pair 15	q15pre	4.000	12	.8528	.2462
		q15post	4.500	12	.5222	.1508
	Pair 16	q16pre	3.417	12	1.3114	.3786
		q16post	4.583	12	.6686	.1930
	Pair 17	q17pre	2.750	12	1.1382	.3286
		q17post	3.167	12	1.2673	.3658
	Pair 18	q18pre	2.917	12	.9962	.2876
		q18post	3.667	12	1.3027	.3761
	Pair 19	q19pre	2.917	12	.5149	.1486
		q19post	3.250	12	.6216	.1794
	Pair 20	q20pre	3.333	12	1.2309	.3553
		q20post	3.917	12	.6686	.1930
	Pair 21	q21pre	3.333	12	.7785	.2247
		q21post	4.167	12	.7177	.2072
	Pair 22	q22pre	3.167	12	.9374	.2706
		q22post	3.917	12	.9003	.2599
	Pair 23	q23pre	3.083	12	1.1645	.3362
		q23post	2.500	12	1.0000	.2887

Paired Samples Statistics

q30pre			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
College of Business Administration	Pair 1	q1pre	2.750	4	1.7078	.8539
		q1post	4.250	4	.5000	.2500
	Pair 2	q2pre	3.500	4	.5774	.2887
		q2post	4.000	4	.8165	.4082
	Pair 3	q3pre	2.500	4	1.2910	.6455
		q3post	3.250	4	1.2583	.6292
	Pair 4	q4pre	2.750	4	1.2583	.6292
		q4post	3.250	4	.5000	.2500
	Pair 5	q5pre	3.000	4	1.4142	.7071
		q5post	4.500	4	.5774	.2887
	Pair 6	q6pre	3.000	4	.8165	.4082
		q6post	3.250	4	.9574	.4787
	Pair 7	q7pre	3.000	4	.8165	.4082
		q7post	4.250	4	.9574	.4787
	Pair 8	q8pre	2.50	4	1.291	.645
		q8post	3.50	4	1.291	.645
	Pair 9	q9pre	2.50	4	1.000	.500
		q9post	3.50	4	1.732	.866
	Pair 10	q10pre	3.25	4	1.708	.854
		q10post	4.25	4	.957	.479
	Pair 11	q11pre	3.25	4	1.708	.854
		q11post	4.00	4	1.155	.577
	Pair 12	q12pre	3.000	4	.8165	.4082
		q12post	3.000	4	0.0000	0.0000
	Pair 13	q13pre	2.750	4	1.2583	.6292
		q13post	5.000	4	0.0000	0.0000
	Pair 14	q14pre	3.000	4	.8165	.4082
		q14post	4.250	4	.9574	.4787
	Pair 15	q15pre	3.500	4	1.0000	.5000
		q15post	4.750	4	.5000	.2500
	Pair 16	q16pre	3.750	4	1.5000	.7500
		q16post	4.500	4	.5774	.2887
	Pair 17	q17pre	2.750	4	.5000	.2500
		q17post	3.250	4	1.7078	.8539
	Pair 18	q18pre	3.250	4	.5000	.2500
		q18post	3.500	4	1.2910	.6455
	Pair 19	q19pre	3.000	4	0.0000	0.0000
		q19post	3.750	4	.9574	.4787
	Pair 20	q20pre	3.750	4	.9574	.4787
		q20post	3.750	4	.5000	.2500
	Pair 21	q21pre	3.000	4	1.6330	.8165
		q21post	3.750	4	1.5000	.7500
	Pair 22	q22pre	3.000	4	1.6330	.8165
		q22post	4.500	4	.5774	.2887
	Pair 23	q23pre	3.000	4	.8165	.4082
		q23post	3.000	4	1.4142	.7071

Paired Samples Statistics

q30pre			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
College of Education	Pair 1	q1pre	2.600	5	1.8166	.8124
		q1post	4.600	5	.5477	.2449
	Pair 2	q2pre	3.000	5	.7071	.3162
		q2post	4.200	5	.4472	.2000
	Pair 3	q3pre	3.400	5	1.8166	.8124
		q3post	3.200	5	1.4832	.6633
	Pair 4	q4pre	3.200	5	1.4832	.6633
		q4post	3.400	5	.5477	.2449
	Pair 5	q5pre	3.200	5	1.7889	.8000
		q5post	4.200	5	1.0954	.4899
	Pair 6	q6pre	3.400	5	1.1402	.5099
		q6post	3.600	5	1.5166	.6782
	Pair 7	q7pre	2.800	5	1.4832	.6633
		q7post	3.600	5	1.6733	.7483
	Pair 8	q8pre	2.60	5	1.140	.510
		q8post	4.00	5	1.000	.447
	Pair 9	q9pre	2.20	5	.447	.200
		q9post	4.20	5	.837	.374
	Pair 10	q10pre	2.00	5	1.000	.447
		q10post	4.20	5	1.095	.490
	Pair 11	q11pre	2.80	5	1.304	.583
		q11post	3.80	5	1.095	.490
	Pair 12	q12pre	3.200	5	1.0954	.4899
		q12post	3.000	5	1.2247	.5477
	Pair 13	q13pre	2.800	5	2.0494	.9165
		q13post	4.800	5	.4472	.2000
	Pair 14	q14pre	2.600	5	1.1402	.5099
		q14post	4.400	5	.8944	.4000
	Pair 15	q15pre	2.600	5	1.5166	.6782
		q15post	4.200	5	.8367	.3742
	Pair 16	q16pre	3.400	5	1.5166	.6782
		q16post	3.200	5	1.6432	.7348
	Pair 17	q17pre	4.000	5	1.0000	.4472
		q17post	3.800	5	1.3038	.5831
	Pair 18	q18pre	3.800	5	.8367	.3742
		q18post	4.000	5	1.0000	.4472
	Pair 19	q19pre	3.400	5	1.1402	.5099
		q19post	4.600	5	.5477	.2449
	Pair 20	q20pre	3.000	5	1.5811	.7071
		q20post	4.400	5	.5477	.2449
	Pair 21	q21pre	2.800	5	1.6432	.7348
		q21post	4.400	5	.5477	.2449
	Pair 22	q22pre	2.200	5	1.0954	.4899
		q22post	3.600	5	1.6733	.7483
	Pair 23	q23pre	3.600	5	1.1402	.5099
		q23post	3.400	5	1.8166	.8124

Paired Samples Statistics

q30pre			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
College of New Media and Journalism	Pair 1	q1pre	4.500[c]	2	.7071	.5000
		q1post	4.500[c]	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 2	q2pre	3.000	2	0.0000	0.0000
		q2post	4.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
	Pair 3	q3pre	3.000	2	0.0000	0.0000
		q3post	3.500	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 4	q4pre	3.500	2	.7071	.5000
		q4post	3.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
	Pair 5	q5pre	4.500[c]	2	.7071	.5000
		q5post	4.500[c]	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 6	q6pre	3.500	2	.7071	.5000
		q6post	3.000	2	0.0000	0.0000
	Pair 7	q7pre	3.500[c]	2	.7071	.5000
		q7post	4.500[c]	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 8	q8pre	4.00[c]	2	1.414	1.000
		q8post	4.00[c]	2	1.414	1.000
	Pair 9	q9pre	3.50[c]	2	.707	.500
		q9post	3.50[c]	2	.707	.500
	Pair 10	q10pre	4.50[c]	2	.707	.500
		q10post	4.50[c]	2	.707	.500
	Pair 11	q11pre	4.50[c]	2	.707	.500
		q11post	4.50[c]	2	.707	.500
	Pair 12	q12pre	2.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q12post	3.000	2	0.0000	0.0000
	Pair 13	q13pre	3.500	2	.7071	.5000
		q13post	4.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
	Pair 14	q14pre	3.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q14post	4.500	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 15	q15pre	3.500[c]	2	.7071	.5000
		q15post	4.500[c]	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 16	q16pre	3.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q16post	4.000	2	0.0000	0.0000
	Pair 17	q17pre	3.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q17post	3.500	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 18	q18pre	3.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q18post	3.500	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 19	q19pre	4.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q19post	4.500	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 20	q20pre	4.000	2	1.4142	1.0000
		q20post	4.500	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 21	q21pre	3.500[c]	2	.7071	.5000
		q21post	4.500[c]	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 22	q22pre	3.500[c]	2	.7071	.5000
		q22post	4.500[c]	2	.7071	.5000
	Pair 23	q23pre	3.000	2	0.0000	0.0000
		q23post	3.500	2	.7071	.5000

Paired Samples Statistics

q30pre			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post-graduate studies	Pair 1	q1pre	4.500	6	1.2247	.5000
		q1post	4.833	6	.4082	.1667
	Pair 2	q2pre	3.833	6	1.1690	.4773
		q2post	4.667	6	.5164	.2108
	Pair 3	q3pre	3.667	6	1.5055	.6146
		q3post	4.000	6	.8944	.3651
	Pair 4	q4pre	3.333	6	1.6330	.6667
		q4post	4.500	6	.8367	.3416
	Pair 5	q5pre	4.167	6	1.3292	.5426
		q5post	4.500	6	.8367	.3416
	Pair 6	q6pre	3.833	6	.9832	.4014
		q6post	3.500	6	1.0488	.4282
	Pair 7	q7pre	4.000	6	1.2649	.5164
		q7post	4.667	6	.5164	.2108
	Pair 8	q8pre	4.33	6	.816	.333
		q8post	4.50	6	.837	.342
	Pair 9	q9pre	3.83	6	1.602	.654
		q9post	3.67	6	1.506	.615
	Pair 10	q10pre	3.83	6	1.602	.654
		q10post	4.67	6	.516	.211
	Pair 11	q11pre	4.00	6	1.549	.632
		q11post	4.33	6	1.211	.494
	Pair 12	q12pre	3.667	6	1.5055	.6146
		q12post	4.000	6	1.2649	.5164
	Pair 13	q13pre	4.333	6	.8165	.3333
		q13post	4.500	6	.5477	.2236
	Pair 14	q14pre	4.500	6	.8367	.3416
		q14post	4.000	6	1.5492	.6325
	Pair 15	q15pre	4.333	6	1.2111	.4944
		q15post	4.667	6	.5164	.2108
	Pair 16	q16pre	4.167	6	1.3292	.5426
		q16post	4.500	6	.8367	.3416
	Pair 17	q17pre	4.167	6	1.3292	.5426
		q17post	4.167	6	.9832	.4014
	Pair 18	q18pre	4.167	6	1.3292	.5426
		q18post	4.500	6	.8367	.3416
	Pair 19	q19pre	4.333[c]	6	.8165	.3333
		q19post	4.333[c]	6	.8165	.3333
	Pair 20	q20pre	4.333	6	.8165	.3333
		q20post	4.500	6	.8367	.3416
	Pair 21	q21pre	4.167	6	.7528	.3073
		q21post	3.833	6	1.6021	.6540
	Pair 22	q22pre	4.500	6	.8367	.3416
		q22post	4.333	6	.5164	.2108
	Pair 23	q23pre	3.167	6	1.1690	.4773
		q23post	2.833	6	1.1690	.4773

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"ASPE." ASPE. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2013. Web. 12 Apr. 2015. <http://aspe.hhs.gov/>.

The information in this article is relevant in that it explains how the poverty guidelines are defined and what they are. Poverty thresholds are updated every year by the U.S. Census Bureau (1). Poverty guidelines and poverty thresholds are both important in the federal poverty measure. Poverty guidelines are issues by the Department of Health and Human Services (1). The term "federal poverty level" (FPL) should be avoided in situations where precision is important, such as legislative matters (1). Governmental programs use poverty guidelines to determine eligibility for governmental assistance programs. According to the article, "poverty guidelines may be formally referenced as 'the poverty guidelines updated periodically in the Federal Register by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services under the authority of 42 U.S.C. 9902(2)'" (2).

Badger, Emily. "How Poverty Taxes the Brain." The Atlantic City Lab. *The Atlantic Monthly Group*, 29 Aug. 2013. Web. 15 Feb. 2015. http://www.citylab.com/work/2013/08/how-poverty-taxes-brain/6716/.

Badger uses everyday errors that are the result of distracted thinking. From drivers texting to air-traffic controllers directing, these examples show how cognitive control is limited. The article suggests that poverty has such an immense impact on the poor that they are unable to focus their attention on actions that may lift them out of their very situation. Further, Badger presents information from experiments run at Princeton, Harvard, and the University of Warwick that show that poverty resulted in the equivalent loss of 13 IQ points. Overall, the article rules out the idea that the impoverished can pull themselves out of their situation if they work hard enough—it shows that the impoverished truly are at a greater disadvantage as a result of the stress associated with their financial situation. In addition to their financial situation, they have to deal with the loss of cognitive thinking skills brought on by stress that results in a greater inability to focus attention on fulfilling other duties. The article concludes by suggesting that during economic recessions and depressions, cognitive ability and potential was lost and that if we help relieve financial stress, more people will have the mental capacity to succeed. This article is relevant to my thesis in that it shows the poor affects poverty has and demonstrates that the idea that the impoverished simply don't try to help themselves is untrue.

Barnes, L. L., R. S. Wilson, L. E. Hebert, P. A. Scherr, D. A. Evans, and C. F. Mendes De Leon. "Racial Differences in the Association of Education With Physical and Cognitive Function in Older Blacks and Whites." *The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences* 66B.3 (2011): 354-63. 14 Mar. 2011. Web. 1 Mar. 2015.

This study looked at the association of education with physical and mental capabilities in both black and white elderly adults. According to the article, most disparities in health stem from differences in socioeconomic status (SES) of the individuals. This study looks at the SES, education level, and demographics of those who consented to participate. While the data may be skewed because the people who opted to participate were most likely well educated, the results showed that a higher education did have higher performance on both health measures, but no significant difference between whites and blacks with low education levels. At high levels of education, there was a positive relationship between amount of education and health. This study stems from the idea that SES is a predictor of health and examines the effect of being both poor and a minority—a combination that results in what is referred to as "double jeopardy." It is predicted that those who experience double jeopardy would have multiplied negative effects on health (355). Participants come from the Chicago Health and Aging Project (CHAP), involves in-home baseline interviews, successive interview cycles, and required written informed consent from participants. Physical function, cognitive function, and race, education, and covariates are all measures involved in the study. Descriptive statistics were analyzed, then predictions were made, then a piecewise linear regression analysis was applied to the data to "model the effect of years of education as a continuous measure along the full spectrum while allowing different effects at the low and high ends of education" (357). Overall, blacks were younger, less educated, and performed at lower levels on both scales, but every additional year of education after high school increased physical function later in life. For whites, this was not true—additional years had no remarkable affects after high school education. The study outlines how the different variables were controlled for. A possible explanation for the results is "the influence of social and environmental factors associated with being both of minority race and lower social class," but the pattern was not entirely consistent with the double jeopardy account (360). This is explained by the plateau seen beyond high school years of education. Overall, this study explains how poverty plays a direct role in long-term physical and mental capabilities.

Bestehorn, Kurt, Christina Jannowitz, Martin Horack, Barbara Karmann, Martin Halle, and Heinz Voller. "Current State of Cardiac Rehabilitation in Germany: Patient Characteristics, risk factor management and control status, by education level." Dove Medical Press Ltd., 2011. Web. 02 Mar. 2015.

Purpose of this study is to describe the cardiac patient's compliance and health outcome based on level of education. Overall, those with lower education did have higher instances of diabetes, hypertension, and peripheral artery disease, and received different treatments from those with higher education. Overall, it was determined that education level did not play an important role in recovery from cardiac health problems, although those with lower levels of education were at higher risk for developing such issues. The source of data was the Transparency Registry to Objectify Guideline-Oriented Risk Factor Management (TROL), which is non-interventional and begin in 2003 in Germany. Statistical analysis of data was described and a large sample size was studied. This article is useful in that it shows a positive relationship between education, which is effected by one's SES, and the health implications.

Buchanan, David R. "Autonomy, Paternalism, and Justice: Ethical Priorities in Public Health." *American Journal of Public Health* 98.1 (2008): 15–21. PMC. Web. 13 Feb. 2015.

This article provides a philosophical view on the principles of public health. Underlying these principles are the principles of justice and autonomy, and this article focuses on the idea of living a decent life. This involves improving the quality of life and eliminating health disparities. Buchanan argues that promoting justice will bring about the best solution for public health. He argues that public health professionals have taken the role of weak paternalism in order to prevent people from harming themselves in situations where self-harm is the end result. Further, he argues that "people with the least amount of autonomy—the least amount of control over their work conditions or other major life circumstances—have the poorest health" (17). In considering this, it must be noted that Buchanan's definition of autonomy is based on Kant's, which concerns integration of freedom and responsibility. In this context, "autonomy is thus the capacity of a person to critically reflect upon and then attempt to accept or change one's desires, values, and ideals" (17). In clarifying the principles of justice, Buchanan argues that often concern with the social determinants of health place blame on the victim when in reality, the implications underlying this are flawed. He believes that the terminology implies an inevitable compulsion to follow the unhealthy trends that plague the impoverished (these include increased chances for heart problems and high blood pressure). This article centers on the views of public health professionals and one view is that society as a whole is responsible for the distributional pattern seen with unhealthy behaviors. Buchanan emphasizes the relationship between social position and health status—data suggests a strong correlation between poverty and poor health. This article is relevant because it

presents reasons why everyone should be concerned with public health and the implications of poverty. It also offers a question that could be asked in my survey: "Do you think people have adequate opportunity to pursue their life plans, dreams, and ambitions?" To follow this up, I could ask what capabilities people consider to be most valuable—some of which could include ability to achieve self-respect, shelter, social integration, and the like. The article also calls for further research to explain "causal relationships between social inequalities and health impairments" (19). Research to determine the public's perception of the fairness of social inequalities could be beneficial.

Dutko, Paula. "Food Deserts Suffer Persistent Socioeconomic Disadvantage." *Choices Magazine*. 2012: 1-4. Web. 22 Feb. 2015.

This article outlines the qualifications for an area to be classified as a food desert. According to Dutko, "To qualify as a food desert, a tract has to meet both a low-income standard and a low-access standard." Also, these areas must have a poverty rate of at least 20%. The article clarifies that the data presented does not show whether or not the affected areas are home to a persistently poor population or serve as an area to harbor those who face financial hardships for small periods of time. Either way, it is made clear that living in a food desert has poor health implications and that the populations of food deserts seem to be static with low rates of migration in or out of the areas. This article also addresses how transportation issues affect the food choices that the impoverished make. It is suggested that increasing access to transportation will relieve many of the problems these people face. "While determining a causal relationship between these socioeconomic or demographic characteristics and food desert status is more difficult, this study finds that high poverty rates are predictive of which low-income areas are more likely to be food deserts" (3). This article is relevant because it presents data about the affect access to transportation has on the impoverished. Not only does it affect getting to work, but it also impacts health by influencing the stores they buy food from, which in turn stock and price the food they are able to buy.

Entman, Robert M. "Framing Bias: Media in the Distribution of Power. "Journal of Communication 57.1 (2007): 163-73. Communication & Mass Media Complete. Web. 23 Mar. 2015. <http://0-eds.a.ebscohost.com.umiss.lib.olemiss.edu/eds/detail/detail?vid=1&sid=2c2340bd-7dc5-4493-9589-c3daf75453bb%40sessionmgr4002&hid=4203&bdata=JkF1dGhUeXBlPWlwLHVybCx1aWQmc2l0ZT1lZHMtbGl2ZSZzY29wZT1zaXRl#db=ufh&AN=24074968>.

Within this article lies the argument that agenda setting, framing, and priming fit together and allow the media to influence the distribution of political power. Bias is viewed as the united theme among these tools of power and falls under three categories or definitions: distortion bias, content bias, and decision-making bias. According to the article, framing

in the media "introduces or raises the salience or apparent importance of certain ideas, activating schemas that encourage target audiences to think, feel, and decide in a particular way" (2). While this is true, agenda setting allows the media to decide what is worthy of public attention. The article argues that the media tells people what to consider as they come to conclusions via framing, agenda setting, and priming. In the conclusion, it is argued that an overall slant towards liberal tendencies in the media is actually a tool for conservatives because conservatives hold power in areas such as the financial resources for media management and the Democrats' limited rhetorical options that are the result of the campaign finance system. The media bias has at least two benefits, it could "yield wide-ranging and perhaps converging streams of empirical evidence about patterns in the media's problem definitions, causal analyses, moral judgments and preferred policies that do make a continuing difference to who gets what, when and how, but it could also improve normative prescriptions for enhancing the media's contributions to democracy" (170). This article is relevant in that it shows the role the media has in shaping public perception—an influence often seen when it comes to the public's perceptions of poverty.

Fisher, James M., and Richard W. Walker. "A New Age Approach to an Age Old Problem: Using Simulation to Teach Geriatric Medicine to Medical Students." PubMed. N.p., May 2014. Web. 19 Jan. 2015.

This article analyzes the effectiveness of simulation based learning for medical students. From an educational standpoint, the article argues that simulations offer experiences that are not gained in the classroom and have an impact on the student's knowledge, skills, and attitudes. They analyzed the student's test scores post simulation via quantitative methodologies and those who participated in simulations received higher scores. Further, the students had a positive response to the training and claimed that the simulation had a positive impact on their attitudes towards geriatrics. Not only did student knowledge improve, but it was maintained. The article concludes that simulation based training is worth the expenses because of the positive impact on the students. This article is relevant because it shows other simulations that are used in education and determines the long-term effects of simulations.

Gurin, Patricia, Biren (Ratnesh) A. Nagda, and Nicholas Sorensen. "Intergroup Dialogue: Education for a Broad Conception of Civic Engagement." Liberal Education (2011): 46-52. JSTOR. Web. 25 Feb. 2015.

This journal describes a multi-university study in which students were assigned to dialogue courses or control groups. These students were observed via videos and interviews and qualitative data was recorded. The study is based on the idea that Intergroup Dialogue allows students to interact and collaborate across racial, social class, religious, and gender differences in a non-confrontational environment lead by a

facilitator. The job of the facilitator is to respond to, observe, and encourage the students. This study asks if the meetings have an educational effect and to observe what occurs in order to yield the results seen. Random assignment of students to classes is important in this study because it means the experimental and control groups are equivalent at the beginning of the term. The relationships throughout the experiment were measured based on intergroup empathy and motivation to bridge the differences. In this study, the facilitators chosen played an important role. They had to enable students to engage in the discussions, appreciate differences, reflect critically, and build alliances. Facilitators were expected to engage all students in conversation, guide learning, challenge assumptions, and reinforce guidelines in order to avoid debate. One thing that concerns me about this is the facilitator's ability to influence the thoughts of the students—this is why it is important to train them properly so that they appear to remain unbiased. The same is true when it comes to implementing poverty simulations.

Ingraham, Christopher. "Child Poverty in the U.S. Is among the Worst in the Developed World." Washington Post. The Washington Post, n.d. Web. 27 Apr. 2015. <http://www.washingtonpost.com/blogs/wonkblog/wp/2014/10/29/child-poverty-in-the-u-s-is-among-the-worst-in-the-developed-world/>.

The United States has one of the highest childhood poverty rates among wealthy nations. According to this article, one in three American children live in poverty. "With 32.2 percent of children living below this line, the U.S. ranks 36th out of the 41 wealthy countries included in the UNICEF report. By contrast, only 5.3 percent of Norwegian kids currently meet this definition of poverty." While other countries were able to reduce their childhood poverty rates, the United States' rates were increasing. "Overall, 24.2 million U.S. children were living in poverty in 2012, reflecting an increase of 1.7 million children since 2008." This article examines the United States more closely and determines that "Poverty rates are generally higher in Southern states, and lower in New England and Northern Plains states." In 2014, Mississippi had a childhood poverty rate of 39.1%, but saw notable decreases according to the UNICEF report that is sighted in the article. "It's also important to note that a household income of $30,000 puts you in roughly the richest 1.23 percent of the world's population. The report doesn't deal with the type of extreme poverty you see in the poor and developing worlds, where roughly 2.7 billion people are trying to get by on less than two dollars per day." According to the author, the high poverty rates reflect the failure of policymakers to deal with the issues that face the most vulnerable populations within the United States.

Ingraham, Christopher. "More Than Three Quarters of Conservatives Say the Poor Have It Easy?" The Washington Post. N.p., 27 June 2014. Web. 30 Mar. 2015.

This article explains that America's conservatives claim that "poor people have it easy because they can get government benefits without doing anything" (1). This is an

important perception of poverty to note because it shows where a lack of knowledge comes in. In addition, the article says that some believe government programs either "provide a leg up or simply perpetuate poverty" (1). With all of these claims about poverty and the impoverished, the article provides a partial list of challenges the impoverished face. This list includes the following: "compared to middle and upper-income Americans, the poor are three times less likely to have health insurance coverage, and more likely to put off or skip necessary medical treatment as a result; they are three times more likely to be victimized by crime; the daily stresses of living under poverty impose a cognitive burden equivalent to losing 13 IQ points; poor children are three times more likely to be affected by food scarcity and obesity; poor children receive a lower quality education in public school, and the ones who make it to college are more likely to drop out; poorer Americans breathe dirtier air, they sleep less, and they even have less sex" (2). By providing these data, the article shows exactly why the poor do not lead easy lives as it claims the conservative Americans believe.

Kreidl, Martin. "Perceptions of Poverty and Wealth in Western and Post-Communist Countries." Social Justice Research 13.2 (2000): 151-76. Web.

Specific portions of this article outline individual perceptions of poverty, which often are grouped into "merited, unmerited, and fatalistic types of poverty. Merited poverty is poverty brought about by the individual's own doing or not doing, unmerited poverty is due to forces external to the individual, whereas fatalistic explanations attribute poverty to ascribed properties of the individual" (1). Overall, Kreidl explains that people either believe the impoverished are to blame for their living situation or society is to blame. The American dominant stratification ideology is introduced as a fundamental "belief in the responsibility of a person for his or her social fate" (153). This theory is thought to legitimize inequalities and the idea that "wealth is perceived as a product of one's exceptional effort and talents, whereas poverty is caused by the lack of these attributes" (153). In this ideology, the stratification system is even seen as legitimate by the disadvantaged—this is often referred to by Marxist tradition scholars as the "false consciousness" (153). Another ideology takes on egalitarian characteristics, is often referred to as the individual social experience, and states that unemployment and low wages increase "class consciousness" and allows the explanation that personal experiences results in either structural or individual explanations of the poverty situation (153). A third ideology is based on the social atmosphere. This opposes the dominant ideology and claims that the individual is not to blame, but society is to blame for inequalities. While some individual beliefs may align with these ideologies, some beliefs may be inconsistent and result in what is explained by the "split-consciousness theory," which "explains this possible inconsistency by different attitudes coexisting on different levels in the individual" (154). This article explains these theories further in depth and even explains these determinants of attitudes in Western countries. All in all, it seems that

in these regions, an individual's social position determines which ideology they cling to. For example, it explains that people who have been able to improve their economic and social status often attribute successes to their own efforts, resulting in a stronger belief in individual explanations. One of the most important explanations for perceptions of inequality falls under education. The article claims that those who have received more education believe in structural explanations. "Indirect exposure to the problems of homelessness, for instance, may reduce one's belief in individual causes of the problems. Research by Lee *et al*. (1990) demonstrated that those who have been exposed to public presentations of the problems of the homeless were less likely to believe that the homeless were to blame but that structural measures should be taken to improve their situation" (158). Finally, the relationship between age and attitudes towards poverty was examined. All in all, younger individuals are more liberal, meaning younger people believe in structural explanations for poverty and older people are the opposite. Overall, it was concluded that left-leaning individuals believed in structural explanations, "individual explanations decrease with rising education in The Netherlands and United States" and "education effects manifest a skeptical attitude towards individualism rather than the rising awareness of structural causes of poverty" (169). Further, the split-consciousness theory is supported in that "structural and individual explanations of poverty are not mutually exclusive" (172).

Lehman BJ, Taylor SE, Kiefe CI, et al. Relationship of early life 425 stress and psychological functioning to blood pressure in the CARDIA study. Health Psychol. 2009;28:338-346.

This article presents data that shows a direct correlation between low childhood socioeconomic status (SES) and hypertension. Information concerning participant's childhood family environment, parental education, health behavior, and adult negative emotionality were analyzing in order to analyze the effects on their current health and were used to predict changes in blood pressure over a ten year period. The methods of analysis were quantitative. In conclusion, a low childhood SES predicted increased chances of hypertension through direct and indirect factors associated with the childhood family environment, negative emotionality (NE), and health behavior. While genders and races were equally represented, genetic factors were not considered. The article also draws correlations between low SES and compromised metabolic functioning, physical health disorders, and elevated autonomic and cortisol responses to stress. The results of low SES and NE, such as depression and anxiety, are also correlated with increased risk of developing hypertension. The article suggests that these results suggest the importance of intervening in harsh environments, such as low SES, to improve long-term health. This article offers reasons that public health officials should be concerned with social aspects of healthcare—caring for patients extends beyond the physical health of patients. This article is useful in that it may alter the targeted population for analysis and obtaining data.

Lott, Bernice E., and Heather E. Bullock. Psychology and Economic Injustice: Personal, Professional, and Political Intersections. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association, 2007. Print.

This book shares the stories of both authors, which put on display the hardships of living in poverty. Both women, now successful, struggled with poverty at some point in their lives. First, the concept of economic justice is introduced. An interesting statistic was presented by the authors: "…the gap between rich and poor in this country is wider than it has been in more than 50 years (Moyers, 2004) and wider than in the older class-based societies of Europe and any other developed nation (Johnston, 2005a)" (48). Further, they stated that "dealing structurally with inequities continues to be hampered by myths" (49). In order to dispel the myths that they introduce, they present the fact that "half of all the poor people in this country are White European American; fewer than one in five are in families headed by mothers who were never married; and in most poor families, there is at least one employed adult (Page & Simmons, 2000)" (49). Also, they claim that "Considerable data support the conclusion by Warren, Thompson, and Saegert (2001) that "poor and marginalized people have been literally vilified by the media and public officials" (49). This is particularly useful when it comes to explaining how the media frame the poor. Further, they present information that explains why political responses to poverty have become less and less as time has progressed. According to the authors, "Our political leaders may not see inequality as a high-priority problem, but we have the greatest level of inequality among Western countries. The United States 'has more poverty and lower life expectancy than any other major advanced nation.' (Krugman, 2002)" (49). The authors also claim that low income people have the same wants, needs, values, and aspirations as middle class citizens. They also present the argument that economic situation of poor women are not the result of an individual's actions, but rather the result of a lack of resources "with which to cope with unreliable circumstances." (50). Following this concept are explanations of social class inequities which they divide into the following categories: food, housing, education, work and wages, income assistance, health care, and child care. According to the authors, "… economic privilege means access to the resources that are important for physical, social, mental, and emotional welfare and that provide freedom of choice in many areas of life" (28). "The most basic requirements for a reasonably secure and satisfying life include adequate nutrition, housing, education, jobs that pay a living wage, access to healthcare, and child care." To this, I personally would add access to transportation. Access to food is also an issue among the impoverished. While there are food pantries, governmental policies, and other food aid programs in place, hunger remains a problem in the United States. In some cases, food pantries run out of food, yet a one-third of the families eligible for food stamps do not take advantage of them, which is a concept often introduced in literature that can be attributed to many different reasons (51). In addition, levels of food insecurity are rising, which is indicative of social negligence (51). "The lack of adequate, affordable

housing is another serious national problem—high on the list of concerns of the poor are the about-to-become poor" (53). Minimum wage, transportation, and medical care are all important, but in a survey of 100 low-income women and men in Rhode Island, these factors were behind the importance of housing. "Among households with the most serious housing needs, 57% are headed by women and 76% are headed by persons of color (Mulroy, 2002)" (53). Further, the concept of environmental classicism is discussed. According to the book "level of toxic releases was found to be significantly related to the counties' social class status" (54). Also, neighborhoods of low SES have higher levels of pollution (54). These neighborhoods also affect the quality of education received by children of low SES. According to the book, not only does their environment hamper educational growth, but teachers also have different expectations of poor students (56). The authors claim that teacher's expectations of students can become "self-fulfilling prophecies" and also recall the embarrassment they felt at school solely because of their financial situation at home. According to the book, "the U.S. Department of Education found that the 'drop-out rate for the poorest 20 percent of students was six times that of the wealthiest 20 percent'" (57). When it comes to attending college, the authors claim that wealthy families know how to work the system and can afford to provide their children with the necessary resources, such as SAT prep courses, and once in college, wealthy children have more opportunities because they stress less about money. When it comes to wages and benefits, many poor people work for low wages and have little or no benefits, both of which cause hardships. Another issue is unemployment. To combat these issues, the authors claim that legislators have continually reauthorize programs that degrade the poor. Specifically, they discuss Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), which has produced "no significant shift in the numbers of families living below the poverty line. Access to affordable housing has gotten worse, and emergency food needs have sharply increased" (65). The authors also claim that this program allows for employers to take advantage of the poor (65). Moving from the discussion of unemployment, low wages, and benefits, health care is discussed. Earlier in the book, the idea of health care workers transferring patients and refusing to treat them (in non-emergency cases) based on insurance information is introduced. I have personally seen instances where a person's economic status has negatively influenced the healthcare they receive. While shadowing, a physician did not even offer a patient the choice to decline to have a student observe her procedure (which was a gynecological procedure). This, in my opinion is unethical in that it removed the patient's autonomy and privacy and the physician stated that he was not going to even offer her the choice because she was a Medicaid recipient who owed him a lot of money. According to the book, "the resource to which low-income people in this country have the least access is health care" (65). SES results in delayed care (longer wait times and inability to afford prescriptions), inefficient care, and lack of care. Overall, this literature is helpful in that it provides personal and detailed accounts of living in poverty and supports information with a multitude of sources.

MACA - Missouri Association for Community Action - Poverty Simulation. "Community Action Poverty Simulation. MACA - Missouri Association for Community Action -, n.d. Web. 04 May 2015. <http://www.communityaction.org/Poverty%20Simulation.aspx>.

"The Community Action Poverty Simulation (CAPS) is a unique tool that community action agencies are able to use to educate everyone, from policy makers to local community leaders, about the day to day realities of life with a shortage of money and an abundance of stress." "During a simulation, participants role-play the lives of low-income families, from single parents trying to care for their children to senior citizens trying to maintain their self-sufficiency on Social Security. The task of each family is to provide food, shelter and other basic necessities during the simulation while interacting with various community resources staffed by low-income volunteers." Each reusable CAPS kid includes family scenarios, props, a director's manual, and instructions for each community resource. Poverty simulations take roughly 3 hours and the maximum number of participants is 88 and requires 15-20 resource volunteers. Each poverty simulation should be conducted in a large room.

"McLean Institute for Public Service and Community Engagement." McLean Institute for Public Service and Community Engagement. N.p., n.d. Web. 25 Mar. 2016. http://mclean.olemiss.edu/.

This website provides information about the inaugural Community Action Poverty Simulation, which took place on October 27, 2015 in the Student Union Ballroom at the University of Mississippi. Information concerning the McLean Institute's interest and involvement in the simulation can also be found on this website. Further, a list of all sponsors for the event is found on this website.

Pankow, Debra. The Forum for Family and Consumer Issues (FFCI). North Dakota State University, 13 Feb. 2013. Web. 23 Mar. 2015.

This article recognizes poverty simulations as tools that make an impact on the participant's attitudes towards poverty, but not necessarily their behaviors. This article analyzes data obtained from North Dakota State University Extension Service's poverty simulations which have been conducted since 1996. The data comes from surveys immediately after the simulation and a follow up survey 6 months to two years after simulation. This article also provides information about the barriers that come with poverty. For example, it lists time, lack of transportation, lack of child care, difficulty understanding paperwork processes, lack of self-confidence, health problems, unemployment, isolation, and lack of support as barriers to becoming self-sufficient. In addition to providing this useful information, the article claims that simulations "can be counterproductive if learners do not have an opportunity to discuss and 'process' the experience following the simulation" (2). In addition, it describes the training of

volunteers, suggests that volunteers have some form of experience with poverty, and explains how participants should discuss their experiences in either small or large groups. Overall, the simulation was a positive learning experience for participants and they determined that they would better understand those from different backgrounds in the future. In the post-simulation surveys, participants claimed to have participated in other poverty-centered programs or organizing other simulations.

Patterson, Nena, and Linda J. Hulton. "Enhancing Nursing Students' Understanding of Poverty Through Simulation." Public Health Nursing29.2 (2012): 143-51. Web.

This study involved 43 undergraduate senior nursing students and used mixed method data analysis and the Attitudes about Poverty and Poor Populations Scale (APPPS). The purpose of the study was to describe how the poverty simulation was enacted, evaluate participant's attitudes about poverty before and after the simulation. It was argued that educational systems have an obligation to provide such opportunities to students in order to positively impact their attitudes towards people from different backgrounds. The majority of these students were white females. The students were asked to complete a voluntary online survey, a good method for receiving data, before the experience and after the experience. The survey included the APPPS based scaled questions in addition to discussion questions that allowed them to analyze current poverty policies and offer feedback based on their experience. Descriptive statistics based on the data were calculated and analyzed and both quantitative and qualitative data were recorded. This is useful because it is ideally what I will do for my research. Likert scales, descriptive statistics and the newly developed APPPS scale adapted by Yun and Weaver was used. For the qualitative data, responses were sorted into 3 overall themes: experience, frustrations, understanding the needs of the poor. The sample size meant high probability of bias and limited the ability for the data to be generalized. Overall, the poverty simulation was well perceived by nursing students and seen as an effective teaching tool. Future suggestions included: use with many disciplines and more time training volunteers.

"Poverty in America." NPR Online. NPR/Kaiser/Kennedy School Poll, 2001. Web. 30 Mar. 2015.

This study organizes data received via telephone interviews of a random sample of Americans and includes responses from interviewees who claims to be knowledgeable about the "new welfare law." Overall, people seemed to believe the impoverished work, but can't earn enough money, receive poor healthcare, have similar or lower moral values as other Americans, jobs are available for anyone willing to work and it is hard to get out of poverty by working. There are several limitations to this study, including the fact that the survey cannot offer answers to questions that align with everyone's views. Second, as the article states, the survey can only reach those who have telephones.

"Poverty Is Perceived as Increasing and State of the Poor Unimproved." The New York Times 23 Aug. 1989: n.p. Web. http://www.nytimes.com/1989/08/23/us/poverty-is-perceived-as-increasing-and-state-of-the-poor-unimproved.html.

The article presents American public perceptions of poverty obtained with the use of a Gallup Poll. As seen previously, the results reveal that there is public frustration with poverty, with solving the problem of poverty, and doubted that this country could ever eliminate poverty. “Fifty-six percent of adults said most poor people would prefer to earn their own living rather than stay on welfare. But 64 percent said ‘welfare benefits make poor people dependent and encourage them to stay poor’” (1). Overall, 38 percent claimed that ‘lack of effort’ was the cause of poverty and 42 percent said it was the result of an individual’s situation—these results were similar to those found in Gallup surveys in 1984 and 1964.

Rose, Max, and Frank R. Baumgartner. "Framing the Poor: Media Coverage and U.S. Poverty Policy, 1960-2008." Policy Studies Journal 41.1 (2013): 22-54. Business Source Complete. Web. 21 Mar. 2015. http://0-eds.a.ebscohost.com.umiss.lib.olemiss.edu/eds/detail/detail?vid=1&sid=c31debdf-8f34-41b2-81f5-4e71c414038f%40sessionmgr4005&hid=4203&bdata=JkF1dGhUeXBlPWlwLHVybCx1aWQmc2l0ZT1lZHMtbGl2ZSZzY29wZT1zaXRl#db=bth&AN=85675101.

Within this article, the shifting attitudes and frames of poverty are demonstrated as well as their effects on policy. Historical examples of shifting frames and shifting policies are provided, beginning with the 1960s and ending in 2008. In the 1960s, impoverished were seen as victims of their situation and governmental assistance programs offered more help to more people as a result of how the impoverished were viewed. They were viewed as potential harms to society if their needs were not addressed. President Ronald Reagan was at the forefront of the gradually changing pessimistic attitude towards governmental aid for the impoverished. During his 1976 campaign, he “spoke at every stop about Linda Harris ,a 47-year-old Chicago woman who he said had 80 names, 30 addresses, 12 social security cards, and is collecting veterans benefits on four nonexistent deceased husbands” (23). With the shift in focus from a generally optimistic attitude that encouraged governmental assistance for the poor to a pessimistic attitude that resulted in decreased governmental assistance and increasing numbers of impoverished. “Accelerating in the 1970s, public discussion of the poor began to focus on the poor as cheaters, lazy or unwilling to work, and on the dysfunctions of government efforts to help them” (23). This attitude has steadily continued to grow in a snow-ball effect trend and today are the most prevalent view of the poor. This article shows the statistical relationship between attitudes towards the poor and media framing and governmental spending. “Advocates for greater aid to the poor often focus on structural factors that make it difficult for individuals to find jobs in an increasingly advanced economy” (24). Structural factors

may include geography, racial discrimination, transportation, lack of available jobs, etc. Opponents to increased governmental assistance may support their arguments with examples of people who worked hard and made it out of poverty or discuss the 'culture of poverty' where it is considered optimal to be unemployed and receive governmental assistance (24). "The way in which American public sees and talks about any population affects policy directed toward the group in question" (24). This study analyzed stories on poverty and assigned them to general categories concerning their attitudes towards poverty, then analyzed the policies created or proposed during the same time frame. Five distinct frames were identified and are as follows: "misery and neglect, which frames the poor as those living in a separate society; social disorder, which focuses on them as a threat to society; economic and physical barriers, they are victims of their situation; laziness and dysfunction, they avoid work and procreate; cheating, they take advantage of programs in place to help them overcome their situation" (29). This study only analyzed the means-tested programs that aim to support the poor. They include TANF, subsidization of necessities, educational programs for youth, and employment-related programs (36). Eligibility for such programs can be determined based on a number of factors. "The national, state, and local governments have collective responsibility for poverty policy, so this study combines those three levels" (36). According to date presented in the article, medical poverty spending has continued to increase since the 1960s and has expanded dramatically with the creation of Medicaid (37). "there is no doubt that increased spending on healthcare has been a great benefit to the poor, but increased health spending for the poor has been driven in part by factors relating to health economics and automatic spending changes and only in part by concern for people in poverty (particularly adults)" (37). This study excludes health spending from its data for this reason. With this in mind, the "percentage of government spending on means-tested programs has remained between 6 and 8 percent; never has it gone higher than its value in 1980" (38). In recent history, the depth of poverty has continued to increase, but the government spending has not adjusted proportionally (40). Considering current attitudes towards impoverished, the authors argue that it is unlikely that future policymakers will address the poverty issue in the next decade. "Conservative attacks on government spending, concerns about the size of the deficit, and 'fiscal responsibility' will keep spending from growing even though we can expect poverty to increase dramatically" (42). As the article reaches its conclusion, it explains how the public has become tired, frustrated, and overwhelmed with the issue of poverty and as a result has called for a decrease in poverty program spending. All in all, the article concludes that public focus has changed and policy has changed with it.

Row K. Could you survive? One month in the state of poverty. http://www.uwex.edu/ces/wnep/files/povsim.pdf. Published July 2002. Accessed June 23, 2012. 450.

The predicted outcome of this study is that participants will be better understanding, potential changes in programming, and will benefit low income families. In this study, the poverty simulation was offered as stand-alone programs or entire day programs in conjunction with the *Bridges Out of Poverty* program. A pre-test and post-test analysis was performed in addition to focus group interviews, which were conducted 3 to 12 months after the simulation. This article is useful because it includes examples of survey questions in addition to different methods of analyzing the effects of poverty simulations. Their findings: "the poverty simulation increased participants' awareness and understanding of the situation of individuals in poverty" (3), "the poverty simulation changed the way individuals related to low income families" (4), "the experience did not usually lead to organizations making any changes to programs or policies to better meet the needs of clients/families" but did reinforce worker's ideas of the problems of poverty (5), participants understanding of the problems were not improved, and participants offered a multitude of ideas for addressing poverty. While changes were not seen, the desire to improve the conditions was still present and overall, the goal of the simulation was achieved. This study makes suggestions for furthering the impact of the simulations and outlines the goals of raising awareness, increasing education, and working to act on the problem. In addition to the information presented, this article offers suggestions for future facilitators of poverty simulation. These suggestions include offering follow up skills training in order to encourage action.

Sandelowski, Margarete. "Unmixing Mixed-Methods Research." Wiley Online Library, 8 Nov. 2013. Web. 26 Feb. 2015.

Mixed-methods research is a relatively new form of research involving quantitative and qualitative data or some form of multi-faceted methodic research. It is important to note that mixed-methods research is not always better than either quantitative or qualitative research. "In the use-together type of mixed-methods research, QL and QN components remain separate, as when open-ended and minimally structured ethnographic interviews and closed-ended highly structured standardized questionnaires are used to generate/collect data" (4). In mixed methods research, data received from one form of research generally associated with either quantitative or qualitative research can be used to generate both forms of information. It can be transformed to yield either forms of data. Mixed-methods research can either be planned or can be derived from data analysis.

Strasser, Sheryl, Megan O. Smith, Danielle Pendrick Denney, Matt C. Jackson, and Pam Buckmaster. "A Poverty Simulation to Inform Public Health Practice." American Journal of Health Education 44.5 (2013): 259-64. Web.

This study analyzed the effect of poverty simulations on the perceptions of poverty students and practitioners of public health. The article references the Census Bureau to present the fact that the poverty rate has increased from 2009 to 2010. In addition, it outlines the importance of the relationship of a person's financial position and health by showing the positive correlation between poverty and negative health effects such as hypertension, cardiovascular disease, and poor mental health. According to the article, "creating a deeper level of understanding and awareness among this group is important for better informing public policies and practices that affect underserved populations" (1). It also points out that "a core principle of public health is social justice, in which 'all people are entitled equally to key ends such as health protection or minimum standards of income'" (1). The study considered demographic questions and other pre and post-experience questions that were analyzed using a Likert Scale. In order to raise awareness of the simulation, they sent out a listserv email, posted fliers, and created a Facebook event. As a result of the participants' backgrounds in public health, the results were not generizable—this is a limitation on the study. Overall, the research shows that poverty simulations facilitate 3 key objectives in education which include: "(1) the transfer of knowledge (2) skill development and (3) the application of both knowledge and skills" (6).

Tischauser, Leslie V. "Culture Of Poverty." Salem Press Encyclopedia (2014): Research Starters. Web. 4 May 2015.

"The term 'culture of poverty' has been used to describe the values, principles, and lifestyles associated with people living at the lowest economic levels of society." The culture of poverty has important implications for intergroup relations. "Because the environment found in impoverished communities is built upon deprivation, isolation, discrimination, poor education, lack of jobs, crime, drugs, alcohol abuse, and welfare dependence, these negative forces shape attitudes, expectations, and behavior of residents. Concerning this culture of poverty, anthropologist, Oscar Lewis, "believed that the values children learn from their parents about how to survive in such desperate circumstances make them less able to move out of poverty." Also, he claimed that "the culture learned by the poor works against their ever getting out of poverty" and that "for things to change… the environmental conditions need to change." This article also provides some perceptions/misconceptions of poverty. "Poverty is seen by many as a sign of wickedness and moral degeneracy: People are poor because they are lazy and corrupt. These attitudes must be faced and absorbed into a poor person's consciousness every day, and they only increase a sense of frustration and hopelessness… this attitude represents one of the most devastating nonmaterial effects of being poor." According to this article,

survival in the extreme circumstances of poverty "requires a toughness of spirit and a distrust of others." In relation to the limitations that result in a reduced ability for autonomy mentioned by Buchanan, "The goals of the poor may be similar to those of the more well-to-do in terms of better jobs, improved educational opportunities, and a more pleasant future for their children, but the experience of the poor does not provide evidence that such dreams will ever come true."

Todd, Maureen, Maria Rosario T. De Guzman, and Xiaoyun Zhang. "Using Poverty Simulation for College Students: A Mixed-Methods Evaluation." Journal of Youth Development: Bridging Research and Practice 6.2 (2011): Web. 5 Mar. 2015.

This article focuses on the impact poverty simulation made on college students from three Midwestern Universities. With a mixed-methods approach, the information presented allows the reader to examine both quantitative data and qualitative responses. The article argues that poverty simulations for college students are important because they are a priority population seeing s they have a low level of financial literacy and an increasing amount of debt. With this in mind, this made me question why my poverty simulation should be pointed at specific populations—why community members in general? I expect my data to be different from the data presented here because with a larger pool to draw participants from, I expect a larger variety of viewpoints based on the different experiences community members have had. Perhaps there will be a greater appreciation and/or understanding for the struggles the impoverished face. Another unique aspect of this study was the type of data they recorded. For example, they analyzed the ages of the participants and used statistical methods including standard deviation and variance to analyze the perceptions of students. For example, they analyzed the people's perception of the following: severity of poverty, self-responsibility, bad habits, and the toll poverty takes. The manner the data was presented was confusing. In order to analyze the qualitative data, they followed a "coding protocol" which allowed them to group responses based on similarities. Overall, participants concluded that: living in poverty is difficult, emotionally hard and stressful, they had an increased empathy and understanding for the less privileged, and there is not enough help for people living in poverty. The article claims that post-simulation, there was a decrease in biases and stereotypes towards people living in poverty. The program coordinators used the poverty simulation designed by the Missouri Association for community Action program

United States Census Bureau. Income, poverty, and health insurance coverage in the United States: 2010. http://www.census.gov/prod/2011pubs/p60-239.pdf. Published September 2011. Accessed July 2, 2012.

The article reports the CPS ASEC, or Current Population Survey Annual Social and Economic Supplements conducted by the U.S. information. The report details income, poverty, and health insurance coverage. One of the most interesting facts reported is that

usually after recessions, such as those in 1961 and 1975, poverty rates decrease but after the 2010 recession, poverty rates increased. This report also details how the different methods of measuring and defining poverty directly affect the results. According to page 14 of the report, "The number of people in poverty in 2010 (46.2 million) is the largest number in the 52 years for which poverty estimates have been published." Many different varieties were measured, including doubled-up households, elderly, single-parent households, children, race, age, and citizenship were all observed for patterns. In addition, the report admits to sources of error and questions concerning the official poverty thresholds. There are different manners in which poverty thresholds are computed, which include alternative poverty thresholds and an expanded income definition. Further, the Consumer Price Index is used to update the poverty threshold for inflation and is consistent across geographic regions. The report claims that the poverty threshold should be used as a tool for measurement rather than an absolute statement of what each family requires. As for reporting health insurance coverage, the Census Bureau admits that there could be a multitude of errors considering the fact that confusion is prevalent when answering the questions. Information presented in this article is useful in that it explains what the poverty threshold is and the trends associated with poverty in the population of the United States.

Vandsburger E, Duncan-Daston R, Akerson E, et al. The effects of poverty simulation, an experiential learning modality, on students' understanding of life in poverty. J Teach Soc Work. 2010;30:300-316.

This study analyzed the impact of the Poverty Simulation Program on 101 students from 5 different undergraduate majors and the objective of the program was to raise awareness of the reality that the impoverished face. Results show that social work majors did not differ from others in their gains from the experience. Overall, students' perceptions of the daily lives of the poor did change. The article outlines statistics of poverty and explains the definition of poverty developed by Mollie Orshansky of the Social Security committees of the federal government. Also, the correlation between economic pressure and family functioning, psychological well-being of the parents, and parental disciplinary actions. This study examines any possible differences between social work students and other health and human services students. This tool was used to teach the students about diversity and was found to be effective in changing or offering them different perspectives. Specifically, the program offered opportunities that would allow students to consider the moral dilemmas community leaders face. Participants completed a pretest and a posttest which included three measurement scales: the Critical Thinking Scale, the Understanding of Others Scale, and the Active Learning Scale. Particularly intriguing was the inclusion of information concerning the student's previous academic exposure to poverty. Among the variety of questions asked, the surveys asked who participants thought were responsible for solving the issues of poverty—governments or NPOs.

Overall, critical thinking about poverty and understanding of poverty were not changed, but students were better able to relate to the poor. This study concluded that the Poverty Simulation Program serves as an "effective tool for engaged learning in social work" (313). It is suggested that this type of learning experience enhances student's abilities to work more effectively with clients.